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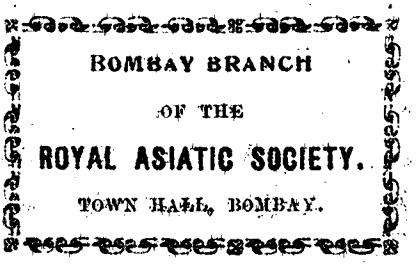

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FURTHER REPORTS

FROM

HER MAJESTY'S DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR AGENTS ABROAD

RESPECTING THE

CONDITION

OF THE

INDUSTRIAL CLASSES

AND THE

108150

PURCHASE POWER OF MONEY

IN

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

BOMBAY BRANCH

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.

1871.

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Circular addressed to Her Majesty's Diplomatic and Consular Agents Abroad.

My Lord,
Sir, *Foreign Office, June 7, 1870.*

WITH reference to my Circular despatch of the 30th of April, 1869, I have much satisfaction in informing you that the Reports from Her Majesty's Diplomatic and Consular Agents abroad, respecting the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries, have received considerable attention, and that the ability and care which have been displayed in preparing them have been very fully acknowledged.

It has, however, been pointed out to me that the value of the information thus obtained would be much increased if particulars were given generally (1), in regard to the purchase power of money in foreign countries as compared with England; (2), in regard to matters connected with the preservation of health; and (3), in regard to the quality of work executed in the several departments of labour.

1. With respect to the first head, when prices are stated, whether of provisions or labour, in local currency, with their equivalent in English money, it is very desirable, for more complete information, that a third column should be added to show the purchase power of these sums. For instance, in some countries wages of 20*l.* a month may not, in consequence of greater dearness of food, clothing, and lodging, be worth more in purchase power than 10*l.* at home. I am aware that in some cases there will be difficulty in giving the British equivalent of wages in purchasing power; but even an approximate estimate would be useful, as the information is wanted to enable an English mechanic to know, if he

lives in another land as well as he lives in England, how much of the new wages will be spent in payments and what he may save, which he may not save here.

2. The power of preserving health is necessarily a matter of primary importance to an intending emigrant. He requires, therefore, to know, with reference to the several countries in regard to which he is seeking for information, before finally deciding where he shall proceed, what is a safe diet for a stranger; what he should avoid in nature and amount; and what food can be procured? Also, what beverages will prove hurtful or needless? As to clothing, what changes are necessary in different seasons; what exertion or exhaustion he may venture upon without serious risk; and what general experience of the place suggests as to personal conduct in regard to health-preserving power? And as temperance in labour and exposure may be as important as temperance in diet, information is also wanted on the following points:—Can a working man find healthy lodgings, and at what distance from his work? Can he possibly find dwelling-rooms ventilated, premises drained, free from miasmatic dirt, over-crowding, and air-poisoning? What are the probable risks to the health of his family from these dangers? Risks from such dangers are not unknown to this country, but there is reason to think they are greater in many places abroad.

3. What is the quality of the work executed by workmen? Are they generally competent in their several departments? Do the artizans take a pride in their work, and put their character into it? Would they make a stand against doing bad work as they would against receiving bad wages? Are there any class of artizans whose work can be depended upon as good from the sense of honour they have in executing it? What influence has the skill and trustworthiness of the workmen in any department of industry exercised upon the rate of wages? These latter observations cannot be made in all cases, but I consider that, where they are applicable, facts of a very suggestive nature will be brought to notice, and that it will be found that quality of work commands, as much as it ever did, a price which, in effect, raises wages; and that reputation as well as competence are secured thereby.

I am fully aware of the difficulty of answering the

foregoing inquiries; but, as the subject is one of great interest to the working classes of this country, I shall be obliged for all information in regard to them which can be collected and relied upon. I should be glad, therefore, to receive supplementary Reports on these points from those Embassies and Legations from which Reports on the condition of the industrial classes have already been received; and in regard to those from which no such Reports have been furnished, I should wish advantage to be taken of the opportunity now afforded, in order to send them with the additional particulars called for in this despatch.

I annex a form in which, for sake of convenience of reference and uniformity in shape of showing results, I should be glad to have summed up the substance of the Reports on these three heads, and I should also be glad to receive your reply to this despatch, the receipt of which you will at once acknowledge, as near as possible to the 1st of December next.

It has also been observed that, in the Reports already published, particulars as to wages and hours of labour in manufactories, especially in cotton manufactories, are not fully given; I should therefore be desirous of receiving as full and as accurate information on these points as you may be able to furnish.

An instruction to the same effect as this despatch will be addressed to Her Majesty's Consuls at places where a diplomatic Representative of Her Majesty is not resident, inasmuch as information on the matters now more especially adverted to, being local rather than general in character, is required from various places in each country; and their Reports, which are received in time, and are of sufficient value and interest, for publication, will be presented to Parliament as soon as possible after the commencement of the next Session, together with those now called for from Her Majesty's Secretaries of Embassy and Legation.

I am, &c.
(Signed) CLARENDON.

I.—Purchase Power of Money.

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
Labour			
Provisions			

II.—Matters of Health.

Diet:

Clothing:

Lodging:

III.—Quality of Work.

Brief Summary of Remarks:

ANSWERS TO PRECEDING CIRCULAR.

AUSTRIA.

RAGUSA.

Consul Paton to Earl Granville.—(Received December 9.)

My Lord, *Ragusa, July* 30, 1870.

In answer to Lord Clarendon's Circular of the 7th of June, 1870, on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries, I may state that Ragusa is one of the places to which the said Circular can scarcely be considered as applicable, but I will go over the ground marked out in the same Circular as if it were applicable.

Dalmatia and Ragusa do not import British labour; they export labourers and settlers to certain parts of the world, particularly California and Egypt; and (as stated in my Commercial Report on arriving in this place) Dalmatia is the province of the Austrian monarchy which contains the smallest per-centage of foreign residents. The soil is not sufficient to support the population; very little corn is grown in the circles of Ragusa and Cattaro, and in those of Zara and Spalatto, much less, proportionally, than the other provinces of the monarchy. The oil and wine sold in this country, which is rocky and barren, are insufficient to purchase the bread-stuffs and manufactures needed by the population; hence the great resource of the coast is navigation, and in several of the mercantile navies of Europe and of the American States, Ragusans and Bocchese have a good reputation in consequence of their sobriety and capacity for work.

I am also of opinion that, when railways are introduced into Dalmatia, they will not be constructed by English labourers or worked by English mechanics, but by Austrians, of which there is a great abundance created by the highly efficient Austrian railway school.

On the subject of the purchase power of money as

applied to provisions, the following appear to me to be the principal points elucidating the subject.

Bread is a little cheaper than in England, as we are nearer the Black Sea, but the flour generally used is Hungarian, from the celebrated steam-mills of Pesth (Pannonia, Concordia, Union, &c.), and reckoning the carriage from Pesth to Trieste, and then the freight from Trieste here, bread is from 5 to 6 per cent. cheaper than in England. Animal food is certainly much cheaper, as we are close to the cattle-producing countries of the Herzegovina and Bosnia. At first sight beef is 40 per cent. cheaper than in England, but the beef of this place is very fibrous and tough, with the compulsion to take a quantity of bone. The beef here is not eatable when simply roasted, and prime Vienna or Trieste beef, although costing from 12 to 15 kreutzers more, is, in reality, more economical because it is nourishing and appetizing. Veal is good, and may be roasted, also lamb; the price of the former is about 8*d.* in British money per Austrian pound, which is one-fifth heavier than the British pound, so that, in reality, the price of veal is about 6½*d.*

There is another point to be considered: viz., here a foreigner, whatever be his position, cannot escape paying a much higher price than a native. If an Englishman is married to a Ragusan woman who goes to market, he will get things at the market price; but if a person is to be employed to make purchases, the advantage of price would disappear, as all foreigners here are served by a class of servants who seek a greater amount of personal advantage than is to be found in the economical native households.

Manufactures are, generally speaking, of inferior quality and much dearer than in England.

Matters of Health.

The climate of Ragusa is good if a foreigner conforms his mode of living to it. It resembles that of the south of Italy. I have found the following to be by experience the best mode of living during the inconvenient heat of summer:—

On rising, cold bath or sea bath, if possible; breakfast of lemonade and dry toast; half-an-hour's sleep before

dinner; copious dinner at 2 P.M., with wine of the country largely mingled with water; burnt barley as coffee after dinner; no tea or supper, and no tea, coffee, or spirits taken on any occasion whatsoever.

I now give the physiological elucidation of a system which I found by experience to be not only conducive to health but to an exhilarating flow of animal spirits.

An Englishman arrives on the shores of the Mediterranean during the hot weather. At home he has been accustomed to tea or coffee with milk, to which he perhaps adds buttered bread, ham, and other heavy fat substances. The result of this in a hot country is that he feels oppression, languor, and indisposition to labour after such a meal. After dinner he drinks strong coffee, and perhaps takes tea again in the evening.

Now, I hold this system to be most pernicious in a hot climate. Coffee procures an accelerated and stormy digestion, quite different from that slow and thorough digestion which does not anticipate an inconvenient expenditure of the vital forces required for the subsequent function of assimilation, and in opposition to current and generally received opinions. I hold that tea and coffee are the sure and rapid destroyers of the nervous and muscular system, for there is reaction and prostration after the digestion is terminated, and at the very time when all the vital forces are required for the process of assimilation, which is just as important as that of digestion.

There is no doubt a temporary satisfaction in tea or coffee, but for which a large usurious interest must be paid by the constitution in the sequel. Many English people will say, "My cup of tea is the consolation of my life; I could no more do without it than without food," &c. Some little effort is no doubt required to substitute lemonade for tea or coffee at breakfast, particularly in very cold weather; but after a fortnight of dogged perseverance the habit may be acquired, and an increase of muscular force is soon perceptible, accompanied by alacrity for mental and physical exertion. Bichat and Cabanis were both of opinion that high health was most compatible with the avoidance of all ill humours, particularly anger; but this is unattainable if the biliary secretions become abnormal by the habitual use of tea, coffee, spirits, or anything else that acts perniciously on the

nervous system; and the deprivation of the above-named luxuries, with their attendant expenditure of nervous force, is far more than compensated by the serenity of mind resulting from abstinence from tea and coffee.

The beer of Vienna, which is greatly superior to any beer produced in England of any description whatsoever is here about the same price as beer in England. But as Dalmatia is a country of cheap wine, the proper beverage for work-people is the common wine of the coast, which does not cost above 10*s.* to 1*l.* the 15-gallon barrel, which, diluted, is a most healthy beverage, that neutralizes the heaviness caused by the fat parts of food during digestion.

With reference to sleep, it is the almost universal custom in this country during the hot weather to sleep after dinner. But I neither approve nor practise this custom, for digestion is laborious and sleep heavy and prolonged. Half-an-hour's sleep before dinner is highly refreshing; it reposes body and mind after the morning's exertion, it enables the digestive organs to go through their functions effectually, and is preventative of somnolence after dinner, and consequently of an unnecessary diminution of the afternoon's work.

With reference to clothing, people wear cotton in the hot weather, but must guard against any sudden chill in the bowels in order to avoid dysentery. Ragusa is remarkably free from ague, but there is tertian ague at some points along the coast, more particularly at the lower Narenta.

House-rent is 30 or 40 per cent. cheaper than in London. The houses here have large and lofty rooms on account of the heat, but they are generally in a comfortless and dilapidated state, and require painting, repair, and the construction of fire-places. There is no difficulty in procuring lodgings free from miasmatic dirt and air poisonings. The drawback is the constant splitting of walls from earthquakes.

With regard to labour the best mechanics here are Austrian Germans and Italians, who are not good enough to earn large wages at home, and are a constantly changing population. Of the native artificers the gold and silver smiths are the best.

All field labour is done by natives. The pay of olive field labour is 7*d.* per day with plain food (Indian corn,

soup, &c.) furnished by the proprietor. Now, as the Ragusan in Peru or California can gain 3 dollars a-day, lives on one and saves two, emigration from here is attractive, and the above details are sufficient to show that this coast does not present an advantageous field for immigration from Britain.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
	F. p.	£	£ s.
Labour	12½	1	1 5
Provisions	12½	1	1 5
Manufactures ..	12½	1	0 15

Diet.—Bread, vegetables, and wine good; animal food inferior.

Clothing same as south of Europe.

Lodging abundant and cheap, but subject to earthquakes, and generally without comfort and convenience.

Quality of work generally inferior, except gold and silversmiths.

I have, &c.

(Signed) A. A. PATON.

TRIESTE.

Consul Lever to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 24.)

My Lord, *Trieste, November* 19, 1870.

I BEG to reply to reply to Lord Clarendon's Circular despatch dated June 7, 1870, with reference to the condition of the working classes in foreign countries, and especially as to how far their habits, payment, mode of life and health may be compared with the same classes in our own country.

The working mechanic in this country, whether as regards remuneration, lodging, clothes, or diet, differs in little from the same man in England. His subsistence is assured pretty much on the same conditions, his habits and his amusements are nearly the same, and the same obstacles which retard his advancement with ourselves, are in existence here.

The wages of an ordinary mechanic vary from two to four and even five shillings a-day, and his cost of living may be roughly set down at two-thirds of his earnings. He is certainly more temperate than a man of his class would be in England, but as regards thrift, the benefit is less apparent, as he requires more of amusement and distraction. On the whole, the most marked difference, I should say, between the foreign and the English mechanic consists in this—that the general capacity and adaptedness of the foreigner is greater—while in special knowledge of his peculiar calling he is vastly inferior to the Englishman. The patient devotion to a certain craft and the determination to master it in all its details is essentially English, while the foreigner, with perhaps a wider intelligence, fails in that power of concentration by which our people obtain their great mechanical superiority.

It would be very difficult to answer that question of the Circular—how far the artizan is influenced by a sense of honour in his work, so as to "put his character into it." My impression is that the whole tone and temper of the age we live in, the modes of life we cultivate, and the ambitions we propose to ourselves are all

adverse to the sort of handiwork that characterized a mediæval period. The student-like devotion of a man to his calling has no representative now in a time of eager haste and quick demand, and worse again, of the perpetual changes introduced by fashion and caprice.

While there were other rewards of excellence besides money, men of humble habits were often tempted to labour for the prizes of fame and reputation, and in this way what is called "putting character into work" was certainly more favoured in past times than at present—not to say, that mechanical skill has so far succeeded in counterfeiting hand labour in a variety of ways that a species of discouragement has fallen on the craftsman.

It would be an interesting question to enquire, how far Operative Associations and Workmen's Clubs have advanced or retarded this disposition, and whether the individual gains in zeal or not by the facilities of association with his fellows. To me it appears that the levelling character of these bodies is strongly opposed to individual excellence and even discouraging to personal ambition. These Trade Societies are found here as at home, but with this difference, that they are frequently the cover of a political organization.

In a locality remarkable for the number of men who from very humble beginnings in trade have risen to great wealth, it is singular that few such changes of condition have befallen the mechanic. Some of the most considerable merchants of this port have risen from the most indigent and unfriended of the community, and only in very rare instances, so far as I am aware, have mechanics attained to competence.

The great masses here are engaged in pursuits of trade or commerce. The "industry" on a large scale in which mechanical skill enters is ship-building, and in this the establishment of Austrian Lloyds might claim a rivalry with many of our own.

In this establishment, in which several hundred men are daily employed, the whole detail of ship-building is carried on, and vessels of some thousand tons have been constructed with every appliance of steam propulsion and all the latest discoveries in naval architecture adopted.

The establishment is so much the more interesting to us as a number of English mechanical engineers are employed in it, not only in the workshops, but as navigating

engineers in the various vessels of the company trading principally in the Levant. So far as this fact illustrates the lives and habits of Englishmen in a foreign country, the experience is not devoid of interest. With every consideration for their character, as skilled labourers, it would not be easy to point to a similar class at home whose salaries should range from 200*l.* to 300*l.* a-year.

Though there is no difficulty in substituting these men by German and Swiss at lower rates of payment, their uniform accuracy, their intelligence, their consummate mastery of all the details of their art, and their resources in every case of difficulty have so established their superiority that even the most active advocates of economy have been obliged to admit that their places could not be advantageously filled by others.

That the especial character which attaches to the Englishman as a mechanical engineer is not owing to any exaggerated estimate formed by foreigners of his capacity is shown by the fact—that nowhere are his services more highly valued or largely remunerated than when an Englishman is the owner or the director of the establishment which employs him. And it is to bring under your Lordship's notice, what I believe would be a highly important and suggestive fact:—the necessity of directing the energies of our countrymen to walks in which they might almost defy competitorship,—that I venture to dwell so long on this subject.

The conditions of climate, air, temperature, lodging, and diet, here are so nearly alike to those in England that they require no special mention, and where differences do exist, they are so slight and so easily conformed to, that they call for no remark.

The purchase power of money is very much what it is in England, at least all the necessaries of life may be assumed to be of the same value.

The hours of labour are usually 10 per diem, beginning at 6 A.M. and ending 4 P.M., a short interval being allowed at mid-day for breakfast. The long evening at liberty is not only a great boon to the working man, but contributes largely to domestic enjoyment and to health, since he is free to take the benefit of open air and exercise after long hours of close confinement and unrelaxing attention. The absence of the depression, besides, which comes of long sustained and unreliable labour

indisposes a man to those habits of intemperance which very often are begun out of actual weariness and exhaustion.

I have here endeavoured, however passingly, to advert to conditions in the lives of working men, a full consideration of which would demand much space and great opportunities of observation.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
Labour.. ..	Florins. 1 to 2·50 per man per diem	2*s.* to 5*s.* per man per diem.	Little different from what it is at home.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet, Clothing, Lodging.—Assumed to be not dissimilar from what they are in England.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

As regards this head, the inequalities, where they do exist, may be attributed to the special characteristics of country.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CHARLES LEVER.

BELGIUM.

Mr. Lumley to Earl Granville.—(Received May 9.)

My Lord, *Brussels, May* 6, 1871.

WITH reference to the Earl of Clarendon's Circular despatch of the 7th June last, I have the honour to inclose copy of a note I have received from Mr. Pakenham, late Secretary of Legation at Brussels, forwarding to me a Supplementary Report which he has drawn up on the condition of the industrial classes of Belgium, and explaining the causes of delay in its transmission.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. SAVILE LUMLEY.

Inclosure 1.

Mr. Pakenham to Mr. Lumley.

Sir, *Washington, April* 18, 1871.

I INCLOSE the Supplementary Report which, in accordance with the instructions contained in the Earl of Clarendon's Circular despatch of the 7th June last, I have drawn up on the condition of the industrial classes of Belgium.

In consequence of my hurried departure from Brussels in order to proceed to my present post, I was unable to complete the work at that time in course of preparation, but the materials then wanting have since reached me here, and I have now only to request that you will kindly cause the inclosed paper to be forwarded to the Foreign Office in the usual way.

I have, &c.

(Signed) F. PAKENHAM.

Inclosure 2.

Further Report by Mr. Pakenham on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Belgium.

On a further consideration of the condition of the working classes in Belgium, it must not be lost sight of that it is the most densely populated country in Europe; that emigration from it beyond the seas is next to nothing; and that, in contradistinction to the Walloons, who remain generally speaking in the manufacturing districts, there are scarcely any but Flemings who, without work at their own homes, or not finding it in the Province of Hainault or in the Province of Liege, go on to France, where they number about 80,000, a number of trifling importance considering the masses of the unemployed—which means that there is always a superabundance of hands even when the industrial manufactures happen to be in their normal state. There is, therefore, in ordinary times, and still more so in periods of commercial crisis, great misery amongst a portion of the lower classes. It will not from this appear strange that more than 900,000 persons (one-fifth of the population) are inscribed on the lists of poor relief, and in truth the sufferings and privations undergone in this country, so rich in industrial and manufacturing wealth, are great.

But public assistance would be far from sufficient for the purpose if private aid did not to a great extent step in, and due justice must be rendered to the Belgian people for their unsparing and often unseen works of charity. It can be truly said, however, that in a certain measure the charities distributed by the convents are an encouragement to idleness and its consequences.

It will be understood also that, in the lower class of working men, the superabundant demand for work maintains pretty nearly constantly at their level the smallness of wages: that is to say, the wages of the inferior class of workmen are not sufficient, and it must be added that the result obtained is only at the rate of the productive power, *i.e.*, one only receives from them in quality and quantity in proportion to the value of the money given to them. But generally speaking the wages not being in proportion to the dearness of alimentary and other

wants of life, it is only too true that the condition of inferior working men is deplorable, and that too much haste can hardly be made in finding a remedy for evils which in the future may become very serious as regards the tenure of property and the maintenance of public order.

Belgium on a superficies of 2,945,516 hectares comprised at the last census of 1869, 2,560 communes, with a population (1856) of 4,529,560 souls.

This population is thus sub-divided :—

Under 1 year of age .	..	..	135,321
1 to 5 years	..	..	353,146
5 10 ..	..	..	445,671
10 15 ..	..	..	438,540
15 20 ..	..	..	427,185
20 30 ..	..	..	745,356
30 50 ..	..	..	633,924
40 50 ..	..	..	524,346
50 60 ..	..	..	426,671
60 70 ..	..	..	248,422
70 80 ..	..	..	120,529
80 90 ..	..	..	28,366
90 100 ..	..	..	2,066
Above 100 years ..	..	..	17
Total inhabitants .		..	4,529,560

Sub-divided as follows :—

	Males.	Females.
Unmarried	1,489,459	1,403,447
Married	692,123	689,883
Widowers or widows	90,204	164,444
Total	2,271,786	2,257,774
		2,271,786
		4,529,560

This same population is divided as to its callings in the following manner :—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Agriculture	709,214	352,901	1,062,115
Coal and mineral works . ..	123,580	14,381	137,961
Manufactures	106,765	134,311	281,076
Divers and sundry	258,640	189,270	447,910
Provisions	48,523	37,894	86,417
Carrying trade	25,793	1,104	26,897
Other branches of trade . ..	31,846	11,643	43,489
Directors and managers . ..	24,953	35	24,988
Religions (various sects) . ..	10,194	12,256	21,450
Public education	6,082	2,923	9,005
Sanitary service	3,800	1,406	5,206
Arts and sciences	5,566	296	5,862
Police and Customs, &c. . ..	36,106	..	36,106
Persons dependent on their own resources, and pensioners ..	22,426	27,888	50,314
Domestic servants	19,130	67,844	86,774
Persons without profession ..	779,168	1,403,622	2,202,790
Total	2,771,786	2,757,774	4,529,560

As I have now only to treat of the working classes the following will show how they are classed according to the last census:—

1. Agricultural labourers	1,232,828
2. Provision trade hands	26,595
3. Clothiers, outfitters, ditto	164,180
4. Masons, bricklayers, ditto	154,334
5. Furniture manufactures, ditto ..	13,924
6. Manufacturing ditto	448,936
7. Mines and minerals, ditto	172,678
8. Other callings	22,615
Total	2,236,090

Here, then, we have 2,236,090 working men obliged to provide for themselves and their families, the latter not working nor gaining anything.

It will be understood that the position of the working classes differs essentially according to their respective callings in point of remuneration for their labour, their amount of instruction and morality, and the exceptional situations in which they may happen to be placed. But the favourable circumstances of the working classes are not always proportionate to their wages; the necessaries of life, its sudden exigencies, like its superfluities, do not always present themselves under the same aspect. Therefore, the causes that afflict a great part of the working-classes differ widely; the one are accidental,

arising from want of work, indequate wages, disease, casualties, or a large family; the other arises from ignorance and idleness, with their consequences: the abpve two scourges which are continually met with requiring different remedies.

As I have here only to occupy myself with results without attempting to trace the causes or their remedies, I will simply describe the actual position of Belgian workmen, and at present I will consider—

Workmen's Dwellings.

As to those workmen who happen to be in a position comparatively good, whether in town or country, or whether they occupy a house or only a portion of one, the part inhabited is generally healthy and well-aired and kept.

Workmen who receive but moderate wages, and who have large families, are worse lodged in towns than in the villages, mainly on account of the difference of rent. It is in the narrow and unhealthy quarters in towns, where there is but little circulation of air, that entire families live, and this is observable generally in all the large towns.

There are also unsavoury lodgings in the country, unhealthy dens which are the refuge of the poorest class of workmen, who have to struggle against misery frequently in its most trying form. There are also in towns and villages retired lodgings for migratory workmen in a filthy state, in which they and their families are heaped together during their week of labour, and into which they bring themselves a great part of their provisions to last the week.

But apart from these exceptions, although numerous, it must be said that, generally speaking, workmen's homes in the country are healthy and well kept; the furniture is often defective and leaves much to be desired, but what there is, is neatly kept, and when the wife ("la ménagère") does not leave the house to work out of doors, an air of cleanliness prevails which is often found wanting in other countries. It is well known besides that cleanliness is a quality not wanting in Belgium; dirty and ill-kept dwellings are rarely found there, except among spendthrift workmen, and scarcely

anywhere but in the large towns, the manufacturing districts, and the coal region.

Clothing.

The great tailoring houses of all kinds have advertised a large reduction in prices, so as to facilitate the introduction of a luxury which largely pervades all classes.

Here the question is, have the working classes really profited by this apparent cheapness, or not? When clothing was dearer it was of better quality, and admitted of longer wear. It is this cheapness that has become dear. The quality of the clothing is bad, and it wears out quickly, and needs constant renewal, as it is scarcely susceptible of repair. In large manufactories working clothes wear out fast, particularly blouses and trousers, which require frequent washing. As relative luxury has permeated everywhere, the wives and daughters, and especially the latter, do not escape this sort of fever; they require a toilette which causes them to pinch in many ways. Thus it is that they are nearly deprived of under-clothing, and do not change it often enough, and their houses have an untidy, dirty, appearance. A cloth vest or frock coat is only worn occasionally, and by workmen who are in a good position. The generality wear the blouse, weekdays and holidays alike: it is the costume of the masses, as the cap is their usual head covering. Clothing, then, in spite of its extreme simplicity, and its *soi-disant* cheapness, does not the less form a heavy charge on a workman, perhaps already encumbered with a large family.

Food.

The workmen who receive fair wages are well fed, whilst the greatest number living without an eye to the future, and as it were from hand to mouth, are dependent on retailers or petty hucksters, who make huge profits on the credit system. Then food is often badly prepared, and unwholesome, and generally insufficient in quantity.

The use of coffee, strongly adulterated with chicory, is general: tea is seldom drank. Sugar is seldom seen,

and milk is a luxury, afforded by only the better class of workmen. Beer is not largely consumed by the workmen in their homes, though it is largely partaken of at the public-house.

White bread is used by the upper working classes in the Walloon country, and a good deal in the towns; but the common bread, especially that mixed with rye, is principally consumed in the Flanders. Butter and lard, green or dry vegetables, fresh or salted pork, form the workman's principal nourishment. Butcher's meat can only be obtained two or three times a-week; on certain days it forms an exception to the general rule. Those in distress have to dispense with it altogether. Very many have for their entire subsistence but potatoes with a little grease, brown or black bread, often bad, and for their drink the tincture of chicory above-mentioned.

Add to this that the hucksters constantly adulterate everything they sell, thereby undermining the health, as well as the pocket, of the unfortunate workmen.

Many of them suffer through their own fault: haunting the pot-houses, they swill bear and the common spirit of the country, and neglect their wives and families. When the wife has to work, she has not time to attend to the cooking of the food, such as it is, nor can she mind the children, who, therefore, grow up in a state of misery both physical and moral.

In 1868 the following was the average price of the principal articles of consumption among the working classes:—

Price by 100 kilos, or 2 cwt.

	Fr.	c.
Wheat	35	23
Rye	25	97
Miscelline	30	35
Spelt	25	31
Peas	27	53
Beans	25	21
Potatoes	8	20
Bread	27	53
Butter, by kilo	2	66
Beef, ditto	1	42
Bull beef, ditto	1	11
Cow and heifer, ditto	1	21
Veal, ditto	1	50
Mutton, ditto	1	21
Pork, ditto	1	60

But these are the official market quotations and prices at which the workmen cannot buy at the small retail dealers or hucksters, who charge them extra and cheat them both in quantity and quality.

Take a family, consisting of father, mother, and two or three young children. The father will earn at most 70 francs a-month, and if the mother works she may manage to get 25 francs. But, then, who is to look after the housekeeping and the children? Washing must be paid for, as also lodging and fuel; all must be clothed, accidents may happen, and how about food? Nothing remains to complete the misery of such a family but stoppage of work, from whatever cause it may arise.

The agricultural labourer does not get rich, and his wages are not so high, but he does not suffer so much, and is better able to face the trials of life; he is lodged and fed at a cheaper rate, less exposed to sickness or accident, or to craving after imaginary luxuries, and more general contentedness is observable in his case than in that of working men in towns.

Health and Sickness.

Cleanliness, Medical Attendance.—Public baths for the working classes can scarcely be found anywhere but at Brussels: the working men washing generally at their own homes. They, especially the women, keep themselves mostly very creditably clean, but it is said that in many cases this neatness is but superficial. In the manufacturing districts gambling and drink make great havoc: prostitution also largely prevails there, and maladies multiply. In case of illness, medical attendance is always available for hands employed in large manufactories, where benefit clubs are established.

In towns there is fortunately a resource from the "Hospice" and local charity. At Brussels there are founded dispensaries and places for consultations or gratuitous relief, which are of the greatest service. There are also in Brussels, as in other towns, asylums for the aged and orphans. "Hospices," mendicity establishments, and charitable relief societies are also scattered about through the provinces. In Belgium, as elsewhere, illness and old age entail many discomforts; but, on the whole, the country is healthy, and apart from certain localities abutting on the sea, where

prevails what is called the "polder" fever, endemic and epidemic maladies are as rare as in the most-favoured countries. The population increases in proportions which call for attention, as an excess of population in times of distress may lead to serious consequences.

Primary schools for young children and adults are not wanting, but scholars are wanting for the schools. The necessity of working for their daily bread, the complete destitution of a great number of families, the negligence, as well as the ignorance, of the parents themselves—all these cause the majority of the children of working men to absent themselves from the schools, and the small number who do frequent them generally do so casually, and during the winter, and then only up to 10 or 11 years of age, when they commence to get weak in body and mind from precocious labour.

The census of 1866 gives us for primary schools :—

1. Boys.	Lay instructors	4,700
	Religious instructors	520
2. Girls.	Lay instructors; religious ditto ..	1,792
	Teachers	3,380
	Total	10,392

Without taking into account the free schools which the working classes do not attend, the communal and adopted schools, that is to say such as are under official inspection, comprised—

Scholars taught gratuitously	304,276
Ditto, on payment	147,368
Total	451,644

The infant schools of various kinds comprised 564 female teachers and 50,881 children.

There were 1,247 schools for adults, having free scholars	46,194
Paying ditto	4,045
	50,239

There were in 1866, 601 different establishments for teaching trades, some supported by the communes, others private and free. But to judge of the degree of instruction of the masses, the following figures will speak for themselves as to the important question of popular industry.

Out of 25,577 of the militia drawn from the working classes, there were in 1867—

Those who could read and write	13,248
Those who could read only	1,960
Those who could neither read nor write ..	10,369
	25,577

It is only amongst those who have frequented the schools, and have preserved in their domestic life or in their workshops traditions of order and good conduct, that drunkenness and ill conduct are strangers, for they form that class of honest working men (who constitute the small number reckoned in the census of 1867) for which 154 mutual aid societies and 11 benefit societies ("d'épargnes") were formed. Since 1867 these societies have increased, and in the "International," which counts at this time considerable numbers, there are, in the manufacturing and mining centres, stores for all articles of food at reduced prices.

The majority of the girls who work in the coal-pits have no great sense of decency, and seldom marry without having had two or three children previously.

Thanks to private initiative, great progress has been made towards popular instruction: yet Belgium is somewhat behind-hand in this matter, holding, I believe, only the thirteenth place among European States.

If instruction has sensibly developed itself during the last twenty years, there remains still much to be done; this is proved by the fact that more than one-fourth of the persons drawn for soldiers can neither read nor write. In 1867, 35 per cent. of militia could neither read nor write. This number has since diminished to 27 per cent.; but the militia comprises all classes.

In spite of the impulse given to education, out of 750,000 children of the age of from 7 to 14, more than 160,000 are still at this moment deprived of all instruction, and do not frequent the schools. This state of things may be aggravated by circumstances, and economists of the highest order have arrived at the conclusion, which they consider ought to take precedence of other reforms, that "compulsory instruction must be more than ever considered as the indispensable corollary

of all social improvement." It is the general opinion in Belgium that instruction must be had at any price, even at the expense of parental authority.

It may not be uninteresting to know the proportion between the working men and the masters who employ them, or the masters who, without employing working men, work on their own account. I have, therefore, made out a comparative list for each class of working men noticed, drawing from it the conclusion that it is only in large manufactories and establishments that strikes and disturbances arise. In the minor works, or trades working more regularly, the production being more in proportion to the demand, the workmen in general are in a more staple position: their wages may be less, but their constant employment is more certain; on the other hand, their expenditure is less.

Under the heading *Food*, is given the average price of the principle articles of consumption; but the Table there given forms part of an inquiry made in 1868, and the prices have since continually augmented. It must not be lost sight of that those prices are those of the markets, and not of the retailers, which weigh principally on the workmen of the manufacturing districts. It is again to be observed that the average price for the whole kingdom is not exact,—in this sense, that the difference is great between prices in the purely agricultural districts less peopled, and the wholesale and especially retail prices in manufacturing districts.

I.—AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS.

Provinces.	Masters.	Men.
Anvers	108,360	106,624
Brabant	188,530	205,784
West Flanders	107,593	177,157
East Flanders	199,263	195,397
Hainault	107,689	229,469
Limburg	72,043	56,904
Luxemburg	73,510	46,777
Liege	82,032	115,698
Namur	48,866	99,038
Totals	987,886	1,232,828

Thus it seems that, in consequence of the great division of property, the number of working men does

not greatly exceed that of their employers. They may be thus classified :—

(A.) Day labourers, agricultural labourers, shepherds, herdsmen, domestics, and servants attached to agricultural work, properly so called—		
Males	393,123	
Female	228,511	
		621,634
(B.) Woodcutters, coachmen, broom, and wooden-shoe makers, and other working men attached to the cultivation of woods and forests—		
Male	6,757	
Female	298	
		7,055
(C.) Those in market gardens, horticulturists, vineries, silkworm nurseries—		
Male	8,861	
Female	1,462	
		10,323
(D.) There remain still attached to drainage works, roads, railways, and public works ..		593,816
		1,232,828

The working men under the head (A) are in an exceptional position. Such as are domestic servants are lodged, fed, and paid in proportion to their work. Their wages, after deducting their clothing, would allow them to make savings; but they seldom do so because domestics, and females especially, give their savings to their parents to support their families. The day labourers who are not lodged on the farm, and have their families to maintain, receive but small wages, barely sufficient, if they have children unfit for work; and in the dead season they have the greatest difficulty in finding other labour; many days are passed by them without earning anything: so that, to provide for their actual requirements, they are obliged to make calls on their savings during the good season.

The workmen under the head (B) are not in as bad a position, provided they are careful; they can save money to a small amount, and, with care and economy, can easily procure the necessaries of life.

Those under head (C) are in similar circumstances; but those under head (D) occupy a very precarious position, inasmuch as they are exposed to strikes,

stoppage of works, and removal from place to place; a great number of these latter go into France for the harvest.

The price of labour per day varies in the different employments in the country, according to the season, and averages—

	Fr.	c.
Summer—For men	2	25
For women	1	0
Winter—For men	1	50
For women	0	80

So that the position of the married labourer with children who do not work is wretched. Admitting that he works 300 days at an average wage of 2 francs, he only earns 600 francs a-year, or 50 francs a month. Taking a household of four persons, whereof two young children, we have—

	Per Month. Fr.	c.
Lodging (at least)	8	0
Bread (1½ kilos. a-day, at 33 c. the kilo.)	15	35
Potatoes (2 kilos. a-day, at 9 francs the kilo.) ..	5	58
Butter (4 kilos. a-day, at 3 francs the kilo.) . ..	12	0
Fat pork (3 kilos. a-day, at 2 francs the kilo.) ..	6	0
Soap, salt, light, sundries	3	7
	50	0

It is right to say that the prices quoted are not even average ones; they are higher in the manufacturing districts. But for clothing, firing, tobacco, and other so-called necessaries, the wife must leave her children at home and do a few days' work. They must also have recourse to charitable aid, especially if, from sickness or other causes, work is suddenly short. This is the condition of the greater part of the workmen, whether agricultural or manufacturing. However, in the Provinces of Liege and Namur, and principally in that of Luxemburg, several communes possess woods and lands which enable them to give to each household a portion of fuel, and in many cases a small plot of land. Also, many workmen rent from the farmers a piece of ground, so that they are able to cultivate it in their leisure hours and get a few potatoes or other vegetables. Besides this, nearly three-fifths of the agricultural labourers possess a kind of shanty; many also are the

happy owners of a pig. In the long winter evenings the wife prepares hemp and flax, or knits.

Primary instruction is very behind-hand for children of this class; still it is generally gratuitous. With this last advantage, they only attend schools when very young, and rarely during the fine season, when they can work in the fields and give some trifling aid to the support of their parents and of themselves. It is in the agricultural class, and particularly in the Province of Luxemburg, that primary instruction is more advanced than in the other classes.

(E.)—Commerce and Trades in connection with Articles of Subsistence.

Provinces.	Masters.	Men.
Anvers	12,297	1,258
West Flanders	19,256	6,288
East Flanders	17,529	5,155
Brabant	15,311	4,536
Liege	7,604	1,928
Hainault	11,903	5,204
Limburg	3,575	1,030
Luxemburg	3,964	61
Namur	4,398	1,135
	95,837	26,595

(F.)—In connection with Articles of Clothing.

Provinces.	Masters.	Men.
Anvers	16,435	15,423
Brabant	16,193	29,925
West Flanders	12,172	23,426
East Flanders	12,380	28,668
Liege	10,615	19,821
Hainault	9,041	32,437
Limburg	5,725	1,647
Luxemburg	3,790	5,147
Namur	4,122	7,686
Total	90,473	164,180

(G.)—In connection with Building.

Provinces.	Masters.	Men.
Anvers	18,667	11,140
Brabant	25,883	24,399
West Flanders	12,281	14,365
East Flanders	13,700	19,013
Hainault	12,242	37,987
Liege	9,337	28,818
Limburg	4,276	3,142
Luxemburg	10,592	2,216
Namur	5,099	13,254
Totals	112,077	134,334

(H.)—In connection with Furniture, Upholstery, &c.

Provinces.	Masters.	Men.
Anvers	4,351	829
Brabant	6,530	4,124
West Flanders	2,655	1,312
East Flanders	3,811	1,895
Hainault	3,552	2,804
Liege	3,223	1,697
Limburg	933	160
Luxemburg	1,001	26
Namur	1,426	1,077
Total	27,482	13,924

(I.)—Various Trades.

Provinces.	Masters.	Men.
Anvers	5,957	1,321
Brabant	3,540	5,511
West Flanders	3,375	2,736
East Flanders	4,537	4,267
Hainault	2,119	4,559
Liege	1,476	3,170
Limburg	491	159
Luxemburg	397	153
Namur	463	739
Total	20,355	22,613

RECAPITULATION.

	Masters.	Men.
Trades in connection with—		
Subsistence	95,837	26,595
Clothing	90,473	164,180
Building	112,077	154,334
Upholstery, &c.	27,482	13,924
Various	20,355	22,615
Total	346,224	381,648

Under the heading (E) are included millers, bakers, pastry-cooks, confectioners, liquor-sellers, butchers, pork-butchers, &c. The majority of these men are boarded and lodged at their employers', and their situation may be compared to that of farm servants, only their wages are generally higher; their number is restricted comparatively to that of the masters, because these latter often work alone, or with their children, without employing workmen.

Under the heading (F) are workmen in the clothing line. Their number is considerable, and the position of the greater portion of the masters does not much differ from that of the workpeople, but amongst these must be counted not less than 119,000 women or girls. The wages vary: for men and boys 1 franc to 3 francs 50 centimes a day, and for women and girls 50 centimes to 1 franc 5 centimes a day. Some hundreds of girls, however, working with sewing-machines, can earn from 2 francs to 2 francs 50 centimes a day, and apart from some thousands of workpeople of both sexes, who can reasonably live on their wages, the greater number do not earn enough to meet their daily wants, especially females. If these live at home, their earnings go to their parents.

Under the heading (G) are bricklayers, masons, carpenters, joiners, whitewashers, painters, &c. Their employment is pretty regular, because public and private buildings and undertakings have, of late years especially, greatly increased. For many the position is hard, as when at a distance from their work they are obliged to carry with them all or part of their day's provisions, and have to pay for lodgings and the cost of

transit. The wages of the working men living in the country vary from 2 francs to 5 francs a day, being an average of 3 francs 50 centimes a day. If this is all they have to live on, it is not enough, but it is doubled or perhaps trebled by the efforts of the whole family combined; they manage to get along pretty well.

Under the heading (H) come upholsterers, cabinet-makers, decorators, &c. Their position is much preferable to that of the preceding, because generally they are locally employed; their wages are not higher than those of the preceding class, very few of them earning from 5 francs to 7 francs; moreover, it is not in this class of workmen that much misery prevails.

Under the heading (I) are workmen in a quantity of trades too numerous to mention, their number pretty nearly equalizing that of their masters, would seem to show that their condition is not worse than the most favoured class of working men.

In the matter of brickmakers, I have been able to procure some information, which may not prove uninteresting.

In the single district of Charleroi there are about 700 who remain in the country, and about 6,000 who leave in the fine season to work in France. The work generally lasts about five months in the year, from April to the beginning of September. These brickmakers work almost entirely by hand, machine work not being common. They do not remain for the burning, that being done by the French workmen. The food of the Belgian brickmakers while working in France is composed of second quality bread, 1 lb. butter, and about 1 lb. meat per week, without soup, except on Sundays. For drink their employers give them each 2 litres a day of the beer of the country. They are lodged in sheds ("baraques"), and they sleep on beds supplied by their employers, said beds consisting of a straw mattrass, two sheets, and cotton counterpane. The men earn about 5 francs 50 centimes a day, but, in deducting 2 francs for their food, and their expenses in going and coming, there remain scarcely 3 francs 50 centimes when they get home, which gives them about 2 francs 33 centimes for a week of fifteen hours' work. But even this pay is on the supposition that the workman does not stop work from any cause whatever, and if, in case of sickness or

other accident, he cannot be immediately replaced, the loss would fall upon the other men of the same gang, equally, because the ordinary task could not be got through with insufficient hands. As to the boys who help in the work, they only earn the quarter, and with this have bare subsistence. During the workmen's absence their wives take care of the children left at home; some do farm jobs; others, and the largest number, are engaged in making nails by hand. The men, on their return home, work at different trades and occupations, some in coalpits, others on earthworks; but the larger number make nails by hand, and at this work they make with great difficulty 1 franc 50 centimes a day, working from 5 in the morning till 8 in the evening.

They dwell with their families in small houses, which often are their own property, and which they have built or bought at the end of seven or eight years after marriage with the little money they have been able to save. But, ordinarily, and after each working season—after payment of the debts incurred in their absence by the women and children, and after paying for their clothing, consisting of blue linen for working and trousers and waistcoat of cloth, with a blue blouse every two years—they are at the end of their resources, without any savings-bank or club to fall back upon, but are thrown on public charity; as also in case of illness or stoppage of work from any cause unless they have grown-up children to help them. Three-fourths of these workmen scarcely know how to read and write, but their conduct is generally orderly and regular.

MINERAL and Metallurgic Industry.

Provinces.	Masters.	Men.
Antwerp	4,785	1,381
Brabant	7,348	4,780
West Flanders	5,123	2,050
East Flanders	4,673	3,657
Hainault	6,476	86,706
Liege	5,679	55,126
Limburg	2,568	540
Luxemburg	4,271	2,307
Namur	4,341	16,131
Total	45.264	172,678

The workmen are classified in the following manner:—

	Number.
Quarrymen	21,781
Workers in calamine, galine, pyrites, and iron mines	7,941
In ironworks and foundries	18,734
In zinc manufactories	3,176
In steel manufactories	260
In glass works	8,344
In metal and ceramic products and manufactories	23,160
In coal-pits	89,282

The general position of workmen in quarries and various metal mines is pretty much the same; the work in most cases is done by local people, and there are but few strangers. The majority have a house and a small plot of ground of their own, which provides a part of their subsistence. Their food consists of bread and butter, cheese, vegetables, bacon, and salt pork, and sometimes butcher's meat two or three times a week. Their drink is coffee and beer. Those who have no house of their own pay a rent varying from 10 francs to 15 francs a month. Those who have no family can get board and lodging for 1 franc 25 centimes a day, and if they ration themselves they pay only 60 centimes a day, for lodging, coffee, and soup. Wages average about 3 francs 50 centimes a day. Although the work is hard, they are generally healthy, and but little illness prevails among them. Their children attend school in larger numbers, and there is more order and better conduct amongst these working men scattered in sparsely populated villages than amongst the dwellers in towns. They can generally supply their own wants, which, however, are very limited.

In the blast furnaces, puddling, and rolling mills, the position of the workmen would not be bad for those whose wages are sufficient to meet their wants, if the stoppage of work in hard times did not render their situation precarious, and aggravate the distress of those whose wages are insufficient. It is proper, however, to distinguish local workmen from strangers. The latter are badly lodged, live for the most part in dirt, and do not earn enough to bring home to their families sufficient means of subsistence. The number of working men strangers to the locality is about half of the local workmen, and they have generally their house and vegetable

patch. Some establishments formed by companies have lodgings for a part of their workpeople at a price varying from 6 francs to 12 francs a month; a small number are as high as 20 francs a month. Nearly all of such establishments have charity clubs; in some also are found medicine and medical attendance, and depôts of flour and potatoes at cost price. In some exist infant schools, and even music and singing are taught in others. The drawback from the wages on account of these charity clubs is generally from 2 francs to 3 francs per cent. of the earnings. The day's work is twelve hours in the twenty-four, and amongst piece hands there are some whose wages are sufficient to give them a decent existence according to their position, whilst the greater number of those on piece work, as also those who work by the day, receive but very small wages.

In the Charleroi district, for instance, there are workmen—

Of the locality, about	5,005	
Strangers	4,547	
		9,552
Piece workmen	4,205	
Day ditto	5,347	
		9,552

The price of the day's work is as follows:—

	Male.	Female.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Under 14 years	1 25	1 0
14 to 15	1 60	1 15
Above 16	3 50	1 50

These prices are the maximum in the province of Hainault; in the provinces of Namur and Liege they are a little higher, but there is a set-off in consequence of provisions being cheaper, and, as a rule, they are well fed. Their food consists of white bread, coffee, or rather chicory and coffee, milk (at will) twice a-day, butter, cheese, potatoes, other vegetables, bacon, and salt pork, butcher's meat once or twice a-week, and a little beer in the house, but a great deal of it and of bad gin outside. Their clothing is the same as that of working men in general, *i.e.*, the blue blouse, and rarely cloth garments.

The preceding remarks apply pretty evenly also to workers in zinc and steel.

Glass-making is an immense branch of industry and has its head-quarters in the environs of Charleroi. The best blowers earn a good deal, from 400 to 600 francs a-month, but the generality from 250 to 300 francs. The larger part of the latter lay by no savings, living from hand to mouth. A small number, however, with care, get together some little capital. Mostly, however, they do not know how to place it safely; the idea of becoming masters themselves by a partnership seizes them, and they do not wait long before they have lost the fruits of their labour and return to their starting-point, age and diminished strength leaving them scarcely any hope for the future.

Those assistant-blowers, stokers, flatteners, cutters, &c., who earn from 100 to 200 francs a-month can, with economy, maintain themselves and their families creditably. Many of them, however, are led away into spendthrift habits, and are not so much to be commiserated, their poverty being their own handiwork and the consequence of their gambling, vice, and intemperance. The other workmen can be ranged with the ordinary labouring men, and their wages vary for the day's work of eleven or twelve hours.

	Fr. c.
Men	2 50
Women	1 25

While the works are not stopped, and the labour not being very severe, the workmen are in a better position than those in other branches of industry as far as regards their nourishment, but when the head of the family is the only one who earns, the position of the family is quite as wretched as that of the other labouring men already mentioned.

Manufactories where iron and other metals are worked, the ceramic establishments, and manufactories of mineral substances, do not change the condition of the workmen: some, the minority, earn from 3 francs 50 centimes to 5 francs a-day; the others from 1 franc 50 centimes to 2 francs 50 centimes; if there exists among them a somewhat higher state of morality, it may possibly be partly attributed to their enforced economy. Moreover, many of them are strangers to the locality, and are subject to greater expense, especially if their families do not live with them.

Great Coal-working Establishments.

In the year 1868 there were about 135,212 hectares in work, forming together 285 establishments, and producing 12,298,589 tons, representing 133,871,627 francs. The position of these workmen is not good, ignorance and immorality prevailing largely. Irregular in their payments, they are, of course, skinned by the hucksters, and often incur small debts which they can never repay. This occasions the ruin of some over-confiding shopkeepers, though I should say their numbers could never be very large. The character of the men is said to be that they are generally mistrustful one of another, and adepts at deceit.

Up to this time, co-operative societies have not succeeded amongst them, but distance may be an obstacle, besides which the men are seldom of the locality, and constantly shift their quarters.

The Walloons are dieted better than the Flemish, but the majority have no meals at home, but generally at the works and in the public-houses where they can most conveniently get drunk.

Their food is much the same as that of other workmen: white bread, butter, white cheese, bacon, potatoes, other vegetables, fresh pork or meat once or twice a-week, coffee, with chicory, twice a-day. Their working clothes, made of linen, last but a short time, particularly the trousers, requiring constant renewal. It is the same in the matter of lodgings, previously noticed, whether for the occupants of houses, parts of houses, or for single men in lodgings. In the "Bonnages," Province of Hainault, for instance, where there are about 2,629 houses occupied at a rent of from 2 francs 50 centimes to 8 francs a-month, they are tenanted by about 4,913 men and 8,545 women and children. In another district out of about 28,879 men there are 11,458 married, and their average wages do not exceed 2 francs 53 centimes a-day.

The hours of work above ground are twelve, the same as underground, this latter going on night and day, and about three-fifths of the men take piece-work.

The following Table indicates pretty nearly the average wages of each of the labourers in the coal-pits:—

	Women.	Men.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
1. Above ground—		
Under 14 years ..	0 80	0 90
From 14 to 16 ..	1 10	1 36
Above 16	1 40	2 57
2. Underground—		
Under 14 years ..	1 10	1 20
From 14 to 16 .	1 50	1 70
Above 16	1 90	3 40

Gang-masters are not included; they earn about 100 francs a-month.

The above wages can hardly be considered sufficient for the maintenance of a family, and if to this state of things be added extra expenses caused by accident or intemperance, it is easy to account for the misery which prevails in such a population, and how much greater that misery must be during suspension of work. In the face of so much suffering it is easy to understand how strikes occur.

The condition of this class of workmen is a very low one, and very often, far from working for the profit of their employers they deliberately tread under foot and waste their best products; they rejoice at the wrong that is done and at the loss which ensues, and they do not see that all the time they are acting against their own interest. There are nevertheless, in many communes of the arrondissements of Mons, Charleroi, and Liege evangelical congregations under the patronage of the Belgian Evangelical Society, composed, in great part, of the workers in coal mines. These workmen serve, comparatively, as models, most of them knowing how to read, many of them to write; they are honest, laborious, and economical, and find means, by dint of order and economy, to dress themselves in cloth and to maintain themselves properly and becomingly. They gain by this in all ways, and their employers almost more than they.

In respect of sanitary arrangements and medical care, there is room for much improvement. There are some public baths, but the workmen seldom use them, preferring to wash at home and change their clothes there. In some establishments the workmen wash their hands only. Generally, medical men gratuitously attend work-

men injured by accident, in which case they have a right to a daily indemnity, but in the case of ordinary illness there is no indemnity. In many establishments, however, they are attended to even in cases of ordinary illness. In case of accident causing incapacity to work, the injured receive from 40 to 75 centimes a day, but in serious cases not only money but food is supplied as well. With very few exceptions there exists no infirmary attached to the workings, but there is always some special place assigned where sufferers can be taken to on the occurrence of an accident. Medicines are furnished to the wounded but not to the sick, except in certain coal mines, and in them they are attended in a hospital or almshouse, or at their own homes, and are allowed 40 per cent. of their wages. In many establishments the medical man fixes one day in the week at his own residence, for consultation, and in almost all the mines there is a "caisse de prévoyance" and a "caisse de sécours."

The payment required from the work-people for the "caisse de prévoyance" is 75 centimes per 100 francs of wages, and the company proprietors supply the same sum. The payment for the "caisse particulière de secours" varies from 1 to 2 francs per cent. of wages earned.

The "caisse de prévoyance" has usually a considerable sum of money in hand, but somehow it does not seem generally to satisfy its subscribers, who, it may be also said, are often rather capricious and unreasonable in their requirements.

The "caisse de secours," generally speaking, is thought more of than the "caisse de prévoyance." The basis on which relief is given is fixed by a tariff, but the aid of the company proprietors ceases the moment of the granting a pension by the "caisse de prévoyance." The "caisse de prévoyance" grants pensions to aged work-people according to the conditions laid down in the Tariff, as also do some private charitable societies. There are also some infant schools, elementary schools, and but very few schools for adults, these latter being nearly deserted. There are also drawing and industrial schools for the gang-masters and machinists, which, however, are not much frequented.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY.

Provinces.	Masters.	Men.
Anvers	1,415	20,444
Brabant	1,080	20,946
West Flanders	1,614	170,110
East Flanders	3,068	161,743
Hainault	1,370	35,762
Liege	2,288	30,627
Limburg	112	2,809
Luxemburg	243	4,140
Namur	271	2,359
Total	11,461	448.940

There are many other branches of industry which I do not notice, because the position of the people working at them does not differ from those already cited; but I cannot close this Report without alluding to the larger industries, such as linen, woollen, and cotton. Seats of these fabrics are mostly at Gand, Alost, Verviers, and some other towns in Belgium. The men and women employed in them number as follows :—

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Flax	86,663	113,116	197,779
Cotton	12,352	12,394	21,746
Wool	13,833	8,161	22,044
	112,848	133,671	241,569

These three industries comprise more than half of the work-people engaged in all the manufactories of the Kingdom, and their position may be thus briefly stated. Workers in the woollen factories, the centre whereof is at Verviers, are relatively in a position which will hardly admit of comparison with the two others. In the first place the number is more restricted with respect to the production, and the productions meet with a more easy sale. The Walloon work-people are more active, and more energetic, and live better than the Flemish, and their instruction is more developed. The average of the men's wages does not exceed 2 francs 25 centimes per diem; also, for women, 1 franc 20 centimes. Lodgings are the same as those cited above, but food is cheaper

than in most places, and those in the country generally cultivate a small plot of land sufficient to make up for a deficiency in wages. It is not generally so with the work-people of Flanders. At Alost, where sewing-thread is made in great quantities, the work-people are often reduced to great extremity. The women earn from 60 to 75 centimes a day; the men, from 1 franc 25 centimes to 1 franc 50 centimes; butcher's meat is comparatively unknown to them, their food consisting principally of black bread, potatoes, and sometimes butter or dripping.

At Gand, the centre of the flax and cotton mills, same situation and same average amount of wages as in the other towns in Flanders, and the misery there is great. In and about Gand, lace-making and spinning by hand occupy many women, but the convents are said to form an organized opposition to them, and cripple even their resources.

(Signed) F. PAKENHAM.

Washington, April 18, 1871.

ANTWERP.

Consul Grattan to Earl Granville.—(*Received January* 2, 1871.)

My Lord, *Antwerp, December* 31, 1870.

In compliance with the instructions conveyed to me in Mr. Otway's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, I have the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a Report on the condition of the industrial classes at Antwerp.

I have, &c.

(Signed) E. A. GRATTAN.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Grattan on the Condition of the Industrial Classes at Antwerp.

Antwerp, one of the nine provinces of which the Kingdom of Belgium is composed, consists of the ancient Marquisate of Antwerp, and of the "Seigneurie" or Lordship of Malines. The former originally constituted a part of the Duchy of Brabant, and was composed of the City of Antwerp, and of seven districts, which were termed the seven *quartiers* (quarters) of Antwerp, viz.: Ryen, Hoogstraeten, Herenthals, Turnhout, Arckel, Santhoven, and Gheel; the latter became, under Philip the Good of Burgundy, one of the seventeen provinces comprising the Low Countries. When the Netherlands were overrun by the French during the first Revolution, in the year 1792, these territories were united into the Department of the "Deux Nèthes," so called from two rivers of that name which water this province, the one flowing from east to west, the other from east to south-east. The principal limits of Antwerp are the following:—It is bounded on the north and north-east by Dutch territory, on the south-east by Limburg, on the south by Brabant, and on the west by East Flanders, from which province it is separated by

the River Scheldt. Its extreme length from north to south (from Merle to Hombeeck on the Seine) is thirteen leagues, and its greatest breadth (from St. Armand on the Scheldt to the ancient Abbey of Postel) is sixteen leagues. The province of Antwerp embraces thirty-eight "communes" or parishes, and four towns, viz., Antwerp, Malines, Lierre, and Turnhout. The country is extremely flat. Its soil is mostly alluvial, and consists mainly of sand, or of earth mixed with sand or clay. Those parts which are composed of sandy earth, or pure sand, are the least suited to culture, and their sterility is proved by the presence of heath, lichens, and other vegetable products appertaining to arid and ungrateful soils. A considerable tract of country, situated towards the north-eastern extremity of the province, is full of small lakes or ponds and marshy land, from the absence of slopes to carry off the waters. Another kind of land is that forming the low soils which border on the River Scheldt, and are protected from inundation by dykes.* These lands are called polders, and are formed by deposits thrown up by the sea and the River Scheldt, a part of which owe their origin to the clayey and calcareous substances brought from higher lands by the current of the waters, mixed with the remains and sediments of animal and vegetable matter. These lands are extremely rich and productive, but are nevertheless liable to become in time too compact and clayey, and lose much of their original fertility. A third description of land, composed of a mixture of the two other kinds—a combination of clay and sand—prevails at Lierre, Duffell, Boom, &c., in the southern part of the province, and is very productive, and suitable to every description of culture. The uncultivated regions occupy about one-sixth of the total surface of the province. The climate of Antwerp is damp and cold during the winter months, though it can hardly be said to be extremely rigorous,

* The highest spot in the kingdom, 672 mètres (about 2,211 feet) above the level of the sea, is situated in the Province of Liége, near Jalhay, on the Prussian frontier; the lowest is in East Flanders, the hamlet of Groenendifk, in the polders close to the frontier of Zealand, being only 1 mètre 65 centimètres (5 feet 5 inches) above low-water mark. The difference in height between the sea at low tide and at high tide being 4 mètres 85 centimètres (15 feet 2 inches), it may be said that the inhabitants of this locality live below the level of the ocean. (See "Report on the Paris Exhibition of 1867," vol. i, Brussels, 1868.)

not differing much from that of the midland counties of England. The finest season of the year is considered to be the autumn.

The territory of the province of Antwerp comprises 283,173 "hectares" (about 640,000 acres), and, on the 31st of December, 1868, the population was as follows:—

Town of Antwerp	156,796
„ Malines	35,474
„ Turnhout	16,878
„ Lierre	15,376
Rural districts	254,286
Total	478,810

The number of inhabitants in the province being at the rate of 169 per square kilometre.*

As respects the general character of the inhabitants, love of independence, which is supposed to be common to all Belgians, is certainly one of their leading traits. Impatient of oppression in any form, it has at all times been difficult to obtain anything from them by other than persuasive means, a characteristic which has been strikingly exemplified by late political events in this province. They are very prone to resent ill-treatment or injustice, real or supposed, and, under a rough exterior, exhibit a degree of sensitiveness quite as remarkable as their tenacity of purpose in opposition. They are considered, as a rule, fair in their dealings. The artizans are, in general, laborious, patient, and industrious. They hold much to old habits and customs, and, even in respect of their amusements, are not inclined to adopt novelties. The men congregate nightly at their estaminets or taverns, for the purpose of smoking, talking, and drinking beer, to which may be added card-playing; but the inhabitants, especially in the rural districts, are, nevertheless, much under the influence of the clergy. In a physical point of view they may be said to possess a fair amount of strength and vigour. They are of medium stature, and historic records prove that they are not deficient in personal courage. During the Revolution of Brabant the citizens of Turnhout routed 4,000 Austrians who had come to take possession of their town, and,

* The kilometre is equal to 1,093·63 yards, or over half a mile.

during the revolt of the peasants in 1798, they fought desperately at Herenthales and Gheel.*

According to the same authority "the inhabitants of the City of Antwerp, cold, taciturn, reserved by habit, as well as disposition, throw off these characteristics at the period of the Carnival. Balls, musical entertainments, and theatres engross the attention of the inhabitants during that festive season. The chief outdoor amusements of the population consist in archery, shooting, coursing, bird-catching, and rearing carrier-pigeons, falconry being also practised in some parts of the province."

Fairs and markets are held periodically in the principal towns and villages of the province. These fairs, popularly termed "kermesses," are looked upon as occasions of recreation and enjoyment, and, during their continuance, shows of various descriptions, public balls and concerts, varied according to the taste of the locality, contribute to the amusement of the working-classes. The Antwerp fair takes place on the first Monday after Whitsuntide, and lasts for four weeks;† at Boom it is held on the first and second days after Whitsuntide; at Contich it commences on the 11th of July, and lasts for three days; at Duffel on the first Wednesday after the 12th of October, or on the 12th, if that day falls on a Wednesday; at Gheel on the Saturday preceding Palm Sunday. At the following places there are two during the year:—At Brecht on the second day after Whitsuntide, and the first Sunday after St. James's Day; at Herenthals on the first Monday in October, and the first Monday in Lent; at Lierre on the third Wednesday in April, and the third Wednesday in October; at Malines on the first Sunday in July, for fourteen days, and on the 1st of October for fourteen days; and at Turnhout on the first Saturday after the 13th of March, and on the 18th of October, for eight days each.

The principal pursuits of the inhabitants of the province consist in agriculture, commerce, and the exercise of various industries, professions, and trades. Owing to the scarcity of minerals, and of raw materials generally, manufacturing industry occupies but a secondary posi-

* "Dictionnaire Géographique de la Province d'Anvers," by P. van der Maelen.

† A second "kermesse" is also held at Antwerp during the month of August.

tion in this province. The advantageous geographical situation of the port of Antwerp on the other hand, combined with the intelligence and energy of the commercial classes, has rendered it the chief emporium of Belgian trade, and, as is well known, one of the principal seaports of the Continent.

Royal Commission of 1843.—Although much has been published respecting the industrial classes in Belgium, the data are still apparently wanting which would afford a complete insight into the manner in which the working population is distributed, in what proportion each trade is represented in comparison with the aggregate population, into what categories artizans may be divided as regards capacity and skill, the rates of wages earned by each category, as well as the relative proportion in which women and children are employed. The most complete information on the subject, as far as I have been able to ascertain, is that contained in the Report of the Commission appointed by a Royal Decree, dated September 7th, 1843, to enquire into the condition of the working classes, and in regard to the employment of children, published by the Minister of the Interior in the year 1848.*

Although a great part of this Report is devoted to the condition of children employed in factories and workshops, it contains a considerable amount of information in regard to the industrial classes generally. Four distinct series of questions were addressed to the leading manufacturers, to the Chambers of Commerce, to the engineers in charge of mines ("ingénieurs des mines") and to the Boards of Health and Medical Societies throughout the country, but, unfortunately, replies were only partially obtained from the manufacturers, and the desired returns were left very incomplete. Notwithstanding that a Report published so many years ago might be considered as in a measure out of date, yet, as it is in so many respects interesting, and has not been superseded by any more recent Report of the same description, it may be useful to refer to some of the results then arrived at.

In 497 factories, workshops, or industrial establish-

* "Enquête sur la Condition des Classes Ouvriers, et sur le Travail des Enfants." Brussels, 1848.

ments, out of a total number of 54,181 workpeople of both sexes (43,073 men, and 11,108 women) there were:—

	Male.	Female.	Total.
Under 9 years of age ..	532	164	696
From 9 to 12 „ ..	1,615	684	2,299
12 to 16 „ ..	5,638	1,881	7,519
16 to 21 „ ..	5,768	3,377	9,145
21 and upwards	29,520	5,002	34,522
	43,073	11,108	54,181

Which shows that male operatives were about four times more numerous than female, and, further, that the number of young girls was greater, in proportion to the total number, than boys, that a third of the male, and more than half the number of female operatives were under twenty-one years of age. The day's work consisted, with rare exceptions, of the same number of hours for the children and adults, varying from eight to fifteen, being, on the average, twelve hours daily. In almost all branches of trade the day-work was divided by three intervals of rest, viz., half-an-hour in the morning, an hour at mid-day, and half-an-hour in the afternoon. In most trades there was no night-work. Sunday was generally observed as a day of rest, Monday being only considered a holiday in certain trades, especially in towns. The average rate of daily wages of young people from twelve to sixteen years of age was from 50 centimes to 75 cents (5*d.* to 7½*d.*), those of children under twelve from 30 centimes to 40 centimes (3*d.* to 4*d.*) a day, but falling as low sometimes as from 20 centimes to 30 centimes (2*d.* to 3*d.*) per week. As regards education, out of every 1,000 operatives of both sexes employed in these establishments, 648 were neither able to read nor write, 249 could only read or write imperfectly, and 103 only, or about one-tenth, were able to read, write, or cypher with facility. Of the women, one-twentieth only possessed that amount of instruction.

The replies of the Chambers of Commerce, Engineers in the Mining Districts, and of the Medical Commissions were carefully prepared. The latter being of especial interest, and, in the main, still applicable at the present

day, I propose to subjoin a certain number of questions and answers connected with that branch of the enquiry.

"*Question.* What is the general physical constitution and sanitary condition of the industrial population of the Province of Antwerp? Is there any difference between those engaged in agricultural and those employed in industrial pursuits?

"*Answer.* The physical condition and the sanitary state of the working population of this province are generally favourable. The inhabitants of the polders and lowlands are less advantageously situated in point of health. Intermittent fevers prevail more among the latter, and are more obstinate; they are almost epidemic in those localities; a larger number of the population of these districts are also undersized. Scrofula is very prevalent among the working population of the towns, as well as in the country. Pulmonary diseases cause great ravages, but the higher sandy regions of the province are equally subject to maladies of this description. These affections result, in most cases, from a lymphatic temperament, and arise under the influence of debilitating causes, which consist mainly in insufficient and unwholesome food, and are promoted by the unhealthy habitations in which the population is agglomerated. The general food of the working classes consists chiefly of rye-bread and potatoes; coffee, mixed with chicory, often of defective quality, and consumed largely, constitutes their usual beverage, beer being, as a rule, only drunk on Sundays and holidays. The houses inhabited by this class of the population are generally narrow, damp, cold, and dark. Ignorance and carelessness cause the working classes to neglect the means of counterbalancing these defects by proper ventilation and other hygienic precautions. Those individuals who in infancy and adolescence escape the causes of illness, deformity, and death above enumerated—those, in fact, whose constitution has been sufficiently robust and well-organized to resist these baneful influences, acquire a sufficient degree of development, and form a strong and healthy population. There are but few branches of industry exercised in this province which exert an unfavourable influence upon the strength and health of those employed in them. Yet, in general, persons engaged in agricultural pursuits are more robust. In large manufacturing establishments

proper hygienic rules are tolerably well observed, and the strength of the workmen is seldom overtaxed by the work performed.

"*Question.* What are the diseases, infirmities, and deformities which the workpeople, of all ages, and of each sex, contract in the factories and workshops of the province?

"*Answer.* We have not been able to observe that the exercise of any particular branch of industry causes the development of special diseases of a nature notably to affect health and the duration of life. The diseases to which the children of the working classes are principally liable proceed from weakness of constitution, often resulting from poverty, bad food, unhealthy habitations, and entire ignorance of the means of airing and ventilating their miserable dwellings. The manufacturing establishments and workshops of the province, with certain exceptions, contribute only indirectly to the production of the diseases, infirmities, or deformities which decimate and debilitate the working classes.

"*Question.* How much rest ought to be allowed daily to adults and children employed in industrial establishments?

"*Answer.* We are of opinion that day-work ought never to exceed for adults fourteen hours, with three intervals of repose, *i.e.*, one half-hour in the early part of the day, one hour at noon, and half-an-hour some time in the afternoon. Night-work ought not to exceed ten hours, with two equi-distant intervals of rest of half-an-hour each. Children under thirteen or fourteen years of age ought not to work more than nine hours a day."

The Society of Medicine, which was also consulted, reported that the general sanitary condition of the province might be considered to be satisfactory. With the exception of measles, scarlatina, and other infantile diseases, those which reigned more particularly were intermittent fevers, cases of sporadic typhoid fever, rheumatism, gastro-intestinal affections, and more especially diseases of the respiratory organs, including pulmonary consumption; that scrofulous affections were frequent amongst the children of the working classes, and that the climate, being cold and humid, was of a nature to predispose to scrofulous and pulmonary disease. As regards the use of spirituous liquors, it was stated

that, in a climate such as Belgium, a moderate employment of stimulants might often be advantageous to workmen, who, from the nature of their employment, such as that of cleansing wells, cisterns, drains, &c., were much exposed to cold and damp, but that it was difficult to draw a line between use and abuse, and that the extremely low price of gin in this province led to much habitual intemperance. That, as regards the lodgings of the working classes in Antwerp, one house contained, as a rule, several families, each of which frequently occupied but one room; that it was needless to say that this one apartment was invariably dirty, the air breathed in it being usually charged with mephitic odours, especially during winter, when windows are generally kept closed, these evils being, however, to a certain extent, counterbalanced by the habit which prevails amongst the working classes of spending the greater part of the day in the streets, which," as the Report states, "may be considered as the garden of the poor."

Statistics.—Since the publication of this Report numerous statistical works bearing upon the condition of the industrial classes have appeared in Belgium, most of which are based upon data derived from the general census of 1846. Amongst the most interesting of these are two Reports by the late M. Edouard Ducpetiaux, Inspector-General of Prisons at Brussels, published by the Minister of the Interior in the year 1855,* the first of which relates especially to the financial position of the working classes in Belgium, and is based upon Returns furnished officially to the Government by various local authorities in each province. The idea which led to the compilation of this Report was embodied in the eighth question or proposition laid before the Statistical Congress of Brussels in 1853, the object of which was that of obtaining a clearer insight into the situation of the industrial classes, and of affording a more ready means of comparison between the position of working men in different countries.

It was proposed that, in every country, detailed

* 1. "Budgets Economiques des Classes Ouvrières en Belgique."

2. "Des Substances, des Salaires, et de l'Accroissement de la Population."

Both these Reports are contained in Vol. vi of the publication termed "Bulletin de la Commission Centrale de Statistique." Brussels, 1855.

estimates of the means of living and the necessary expenditure of these classes should be prepared, the working population being classified according to three distinct categories :—

1. Families partly supported by public charity.

2. Those barely able to meet their expenses, but not dependent upon public relief.

3. Those whose means enabled them to live comfortably, and who might be considered entirely independent.

One family of each category, consisting of father, mother, and four children, aged respectively 16, 12, 6, and 2, to be taken as examples in each important section of country or in any given locality. This work, as regards Belgium, was ably executed by M. Ducpetiaux in the Report above referred to, although the information on which it was founded was not in all cases completely accurate. The returns furnished from the Province of Antwerp relate to working men, chiefly agricultural labourers, and their families residing in four different country parishes, and are thus summed up :—

Parishes.		Nature of Employment.	Receipts.			Expenses.												Deficit.			Surplus.		
						Necessaries of Life.			Public Worship, Schooling, &c.			Amusements, Luxuries, &c.			Total.								
			F. c.	£ s. d.		F. c.	£ s. d.		F. c.	£ s. d.		F. c.	£ s. d.		F. c.	£ s. d.		Fr. c.	£ s. d.		F. c.	£ s. d.	
Berlaer ...	1st Category	Navvy ...	409 0	16 7	2½	400 0	16 0	0	...	...		8 34	0 6	8	408 34	16 6	8	...	...		0 66	0 0	6½
Ditto ...	2nd ,, ...	Weaver ...	640 0	25 12	0	613 24	24 10	6½	5 0	0 4	0	20 43	0 16	4	638 67	25 10	10½	...	...		1 33	0 1	0½
Ditto ...	3rd ,, ...	Carpenter...	1,260 0	50 8	0	1,008 6	40 6	5½	19 0	0 15	2	124 73	4 19	9½	1,151 79	46 1	5	...	...		108 21	4 6	7
Eekeren ...	1st ,, ...	Agricultural labourer ...	705 0	28 4	0	673 79	26 19	0	16 88	0 13	6½	24 70	0 19	9	715 37	28 12	3½	10 37	0 8	3½	...	...	
Gheel ...	1st ,, ...	Ditto ...	763 0	30 10	4½	795 27	31 16	2½	...	...		15 60	0 12	6	810 87	32 8	8½	47 87	1 18	4	...	...	
Ditto ...	2nd ,, ...	Ditto ...	1,019 82	40 15	10½	878 30	35 2	8	7 50	0 6	0	20 80	0 16	7½	906 60	36 5	3½	...	...		113 22	4 10	7
Ditto ...	3rd ,, ...	Ditto ...	1,691 32	67 13	0½	1,586 96	63 9	7	37 0	1 9	6½	23 60	0 18	11	1,647 56	65 18	0½	...	...		43 76	1 15	0
Hoogstraeten	1st ,, ...	Ditto ...	410 0	16 8	0	590 86	23 12	8½	...	...		17 64	0 14	1	608 50	24 6	9½	198 50	7 18	9½	...	...	
Ditto ...	3rd ,, ...	Ditto ...	958 66	38 6	11	897 98	35 18	4	24 62	0 19	8½	36 6	1 8	10½	958 66	38 6	11	...	...		...	...	

From which it appears that in all but one case the labourers of the first category, as might have been expected, show a deficit at the end of the year, those of the second in two cases (the only ones cited) show a surplus, and those of the third, in two instances out of three, a surplus, while in one the account is evenly balanced.

The following Table, taken from the same Report, showing the amount of food consumed annually, on the average, by each individual of the working classes in the province of Antwerp (the consumption of children being calculated at the rate of two children to one adult), will further exemplify the material condition of the working population of the province :—

		Bread.						Potatoes or other Vegetables.		Meat and Lard.		Butter and Dripping.		Coffee.	
		Wheat or Spelt.		Wheat and Rye mixed.		Rye.									
		Kilos.	Lbs.	Kilos.	Lbs.	Kilos.	Lbs.	Kilos.	Lbs.	Kilos.	Lbs.	Kilos.	Lbs.	Kilos.	Lbs.
Towns	1st Category ..	10·40	22·10	72·80	154·70	?	?	437	928½	..	..	5·20	11·05	?	?
Ditto	3rd ,, ..	31·30	66·30	72·80	154·70	?	?	499	1,070½	10·40	22·10	10·40	22·10	10·40	22·10
Agricultural districts ..	1st ,, ..	..	..	..	..	286	607½	561	1,192	1·20	2·55	2·60	5·525	5·20	11·05
Ditto	3rd ,, ..	..	..	..	..	262	559½	780	1,657½	20·80	44·20	10·40	22·10	6·24	13·18

Turning to the latest official publication bearing upon general statistics, population, &c., the "Annuaire Statistique" ("Yearly Statistical Review"), published under the auspices of the Minister of the Interior, I find the following particulars relative to the province of Antwerp.

I.—Classification of Inhabitants in respect of Trades or Conditions derived from the General Census of 1846.

Trades or Conditions.	Employers and Tradesmen.	Workmen.	Total.
Agriculture	108,360	106,624	214,984
Pursuits connected with the production and preparation of food ..	12,297	1,258	13,555
Ditto clothing..	16,435	15,423	31,858
Ditto building..	18,667	11,140	29,807
Dtto furnishing	4,351	829	5,181
Manufacturing industry.. ..	1,416	20,440	21,856
Metallurgy	4,785	1,381	6,166
Other pursuits..	3,957	1,321	5,278
Commerce	39,466	..	39,466
Liberal professions	26,359	..	26,359
Persons without professions ..	..	..	11,845
Totals	236,093	158,416	406,354

II.—Industrial Population in 1856.

Occupation or Employment.	Men.	Women.
A.—*Trades.*		
Metallurgy	1,618	10
Glassworks, ceramic products .. .	40	..
Manufactures of flax and hemp	3,731	734
Ditto wool	88	1
Ditto cotton	819	120
Ditto silk	722	14
Ditto leather, hides, carriage-building, saddlery, &c...	2,881	9
Production of food	5,883	396
Clothing trade	6,568	2,679
Building ditto	10,802	658
Furniture ditto	2,304	4
Chemical products	91	13
Printing, papermaking, engraving, photography	684	..
Various pursuits..	1,874	18
Totals	38,105	4,656

Occupation or Employment.	Men.	Women.
B.—*Commerce.*		
Consumption, articles of	4,386	3,534
Clothing, ditto	311	538
Construction, articles employed in	155	31
Transport and carriage	3,280	25
Bookselling, works of art, music	151	64
Banks, Brokers, money-changers	1,216	10
Miscellaneous branches of commerce ..	1,931	438
Grand Totals	49,535	9,296

Wages, &c.—Being desirous of furnishing some further details relative to the actual number, classification, wages, and condition of the operatives and artizans employed in the principal industrial establishments and trades of this city and province, I have applied to various official persons and employers of labour, through whose kindness I have been enabled to collect the following particulars.*

Principal Industries and Trades.	Average Daily Wages.* Currency.	Sterling.	Remarks.
	F. c. F. c.	*s. d.* *s. d.*	
Sugar refineries	2 50 to 2 75	2 0 to 2 2½	There are 20 refineries at Antwerp, employing 765 operatives. Those engaged in the manufacture of candy receive a higher rate of wages than that here indicated.
Rice-mills	2 50	2 0	There are 5 rice-mills at Antwerp, which employ 75 hands.
Distilleries	2 50	2 0	5 establishments in all, and 250 workmen.
Breweries	2 30	1 11	14 breweries and 120 workmen.
Oil-works	2 85	2 3½	2 important establishments in which linseed and rapeseed are chiefly employed; 70 hands engaged.
Cigar manufactories... ...	2 75	2 2½	87 factories; 2,000 hands—1,900 male and 100 female, the wages of the latter being 1 franc 25 centimes (1*s.*) a-day.
Shirting, ticking, &c. ...	1 0 3 0	0 10 2 5	Children, 40 to 60 centimes (4*d.* to 6*d.*); from 2,000 to 2,500 employed.

* The day's work is assumed to consist of 12 hours in manufacturing establishments, and of 10 in the various trades.

* I beg to be allowed to subjoin the names of the following gentlemen to whom my thanks are specially due: Mr. Philip Racymackers, late Commissioner of the Belgian Government to the Amsterdam International Exhibition of 1869; Mr. E. de Gottal, Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce and Manufactures of Antwerp; Mr. De Bom, Chief of the Poor Law Department at the Hotel de Ville; Mr. A. Van Camp, Member of the Belgian Commission for the London International Exhibition of 1871; and Mr. A. Stein, Consul of the Dominican Republic at this port.

Principal Industries and Trades.	Average Daily Wages. Currency.		Sterling.		Remarks.
	F. c.	F. c.	s. d.	s. d.	
Wool-washing	2 75		2 2½		2 establishments; 60 operatives—40 male and 20 female, the wages of the latter being 1 franc 75 centimes (1s. 5d.) per day.
Rattan or cane-works ...	2 0	3 50	1 8	2 10	1 factory, employing 500 operatives—200 men, 200 women, and 100 boys; wages of the women 2 francs (1s. 8d.) and of the boys 60 centimes to 1 franc (6d. to 10d.) per day.
Dyeing and bleaching ...	2 0		1 8		
Sperm-candlemaking ...	2 72		3 2		1 large establishment only exists in the Province of Antwerp; 249 hands are employed, of which number 85 are women, who earn 1 franc 13 centimes (about 11d.) a-day.
Salt-works	2 0		1 8		1 establishment at Antwerp; 4 hands employed.
Saw-mills	3 50		2 10		8 mills; 100 hands. Engineers receive from 5 to 7 francs (4s. to 5s. 7½d.) a-day.
Ceramic industry	...		...		Chiefly established at Boom, Niel, Rumpst, and Hemixem. About 6,870 operatives employed.
Cooperage by machinery ...	4 0		3 2½		1 establishment, employing 100 to 125 hands.
Lace manufacture	1 0	2 0	0 10	1 7½	Work done by hand, chiefly by women and children, the latter earning from 50 centimes to 1 franc 25 centimes (5d. to 1s.) per day.
Paper and card manufactories	1 50	3 50	1 2½	2 10	About 2,000 persons employed at Turnhout. Wages of children from 60 centimes to 1 franc 25 centimes (6d. to 1s.) a-day.
Manufactures of Antwerp silk	3 0	3 50	2 5	2 10	3 establishments, employing 30 operatives.
Ditto sewing silk	2 0	2 50	1 7½	2 0	8 establishments, employing 153 operatives —125 men and 28 women.
Weaving-looms (dressers and tenters)	3 75		3 0		Women weavers (power-loom) earn 1 franc 75 centimes (1s. 5d.) per day.
Masons	2 50	3 0	2 0	2 5	There are 76 master masons entered in the books of the Town Hall, and in all probability between 1,100 and 1,200 journeymen employed in the trade at Antwerp.
Masons' labourers	2 0		1 7		
Cabinetmakers	2 80		2 3		Superior workmen earn up to 7 francs 50 centimes (6s.) a-day for 12 hours' work.
Carpenters and joiners ...	2 80		2 3		
Locksmiths	3 0		2 5		
Blacksmiths	3 0	3 50	2 5	2 10	
Upholsterers	4 0		3 2½		Furniture trimmers generally work by the piece, and make on an average 8 francs (6s. 5d.) per day.
Wood-carvers	4 0		3 2½		
Foremen ditto	5 50		4 5		
Whitewashers	2 50	3 0	2 0	2 5	
Plumbers and glaziers ...	3 0		2 5		
Painters	2 50	4 0	2 0	3 2½	First class workmen earn 5 to 10 francs (4s. to 8s.) a-day.
Makers of plaster ornaments	5 0		4 0		
Engine-drivers	5 0		4 0		
Stone and marble-cutters ...	3 0	4 0	2 5	3 2½	There are 22 master stone and marble-cutters and 153 journeymen entered in the books of the Town Hall at Antwerp.
Engineers, boiler-makers, and shipsmiths	3 0		2 5		
Printers	3 25		2 7		In exceptional cases a higher rate of wages is paid. Foremen earn from 4 francs 50 centimes to 5 francs 50 centimes (3s. 7½d. to 4s. 5d.) per day; correctors of the press from about 1,600 to 1,800 francs (64l. to 72l.) a-year.
Diamond polishers	10 0		8 0		Splitters earn up to 15 francs (12s.) a-day.
Boot and shoemakers ...	4 0		3 2½		Generally work by the piece and may earn much more if industrious and skilful. Women working by hand earn from 1 franc 50 centimes to 2 francs 50 centimes (1s. 2½d. to 2s.), if with a sewing-machine about the same as men.
Tailors	4 0		3 2½		Work equally by the piece as a rule.
Hairdressers	2 50		2 0		
Bakers	2 50		2 0		
Bookbinders	2 50	3 0	2 0	2 5	Superior hands earn from 4 to 5 francs (3s. 2½d. to 4s.) per day.

Distilleries.—There are five large distilleries in Antwerp and its neighbourhood, chiefly engaged in the manufacture of gin, the greater part of which is consumed in Belgium. Some exportation takes place to the Colonies and parts beyond the sea. The qualities of Belgian gin are highly esteemed both in this country and abroad.

Breweries.—Out of fourteen breweries established here two brew strong beer, according to the German method, an imitation of "Bavarian beer." The others produce what is termed "bière d'orge" (beer made from barley) and small white beer, at prices varying from 10 to 20 centimes per litre (a little over a quart) according to quality.

Cigar and Tobacco Trade.—The manufacture of tobacco and cigars exists on a large scale at Antwerp, occupying on an average, about 2,000 hands.

Although there is no protection, the duty being small both on tobacco and cigars (the latter only 9*d.* per lb. duty) this circumstance has not only interfered with the local trade but a considerable exportation takes place towards all parts of the globe. Since the reduction of the duty upon manufactured tobacco in England a certain trade has been carried on betwen the two countries, notwithstanding the great difference which exists in England between the duty on the raw and on the manufactured article. The continuance of this trade is, I am informed, solely to be ascribed to two causes; first, to the action and influence exercised on the trade by the different Trades Unions, and secondly to the exorbitant profits expected by the English manufacturers, which enable foreigners to compete with or undersell them in certain branches of the trade. As regards the first of these causes there were two ways open to English working men by which to combat competition from abroad; namely, to consent to a diminution of the high rate of wages they now receive, compensating this loss by a proportionate increase of the working hours, or else to endeavour to introduce Trades Unions on the Continent, and thus to originate strikes for increase of wages. The great difference of duty in England between manufactured and unmanufactured tobacco would have rendered the former an easy task as regards the cigar trade, and would have effectually put an end to the

slightest possible competition, but they chose the latter course, and thus, through the action of the International Workmen's Association, of which branches have extended to this country, more than half the operatives employed in the Belgian cigar trade already belong to it. Many difficulties have arisen. Some qualities have already been raised in price, and were it not for the precarious state of affairs on the Continent it is believed that the small and partial strikes which have already taken place would have become far more formidable, and have seriously affected the whole trade.*

The working hours in the Antwerp cigar factories are in summer from 6·30 A.M. to 12, and from 1·30 P.M until 7 P.M., in winter from 8 A.M. to 12, and from 1 P.M. to 8 P.M., the operative thus doing eleven hours of regular hard work daily, and being besides ready to work extra hours. A good workman here can in this manner make from 2,500 to 3,000 cigars per week. In England it is stated he would not, on an average, do more than half this amount of work, yet the difference of wages is such that the English workman earns more than the best workman in this country.

There are eighty-seven cigar manufactories in operation altogether, but of these establishments about forty do not exclusively manufacture cigars, but are more especially engaged in cutting tobacco. In one of these factories a certain number of women have been employed as an experiment, which, according to the proprietor, has proved satisfactory, although this kind of occupation does not appear to be very well suited to women.

The number of journeymen cigar-makers mentioned in the preceding Table includes the assistants, whose wages are paid by the workmen themselves, which reduces their wages materially. But, as a good deal of work in this trade is done by the lump, at a fixed price, say, per thousand cigars, according to the shape and style of the cigar, and the quality of the tobacco employed, it not unfrequently happens that a skilful operative may earn 30 francs (1*l.* 4*s.*) a-week, clear of all charges.

Rattan or Cane Works.—The single establishment of this description in Antwerp was founded in 1865, and

* As regards this province generally, the Association has, I understand, as yet obtained but comparatively few adherents.

was said to be one of the most important in Europe. At first twenty operatives were employed; in the following year it commenced to be worked by steam power, and, until the destruction of the factory by fire some months ago, occupied about 500 hands in all, men, women, and children. The quantity of raw material employed amounted to from 5,000 to 6,000 kilos (about 5 to 6 tons) a-day, imported direct from the East Indies and other British Colonies. It is to be regretted that this important and successful undertaking was brought to a standstill by the destruction of the building, now, however, in process of reconstruction.

Cooperage by Machinery.—This species of industry is entirely new in Antwerp. The only establishment of the kind existing here has been in successful operation for about four years; and, according to present arrangements, about 2,500 casks and cases can be turned out weekly.

Antwerp Black Silk.—The manufacture of black silk, formerly a most flourishing branch of industry in this city, has greatly declined of late years. In past centuries there were over thirty silk factories in existence, employing more than 4,000 operatives, who lived comfortably upon the produce of their labour. In many streets the sound of the hand-looms could be heard issuing from private workshops belonging to the masters, and directed by foremen, who only obtained this privilege after having undergone an examination and exhibited a specimen of their handiwork to a jury composed of workmen chosen by the town from amongst the guild of weavers by whom diplomas of capacity were granted. Foremen, after having obtained this certificate, were in the habit of taking in a certain number of young apprentices and other workmen desirous of perfecting themselves in the art of weaving silk, who in their turn submitted to the qualifying test in order to be entitled to assume the management of a workshop, to which pecuniary advantages were attached. But this custom of former times has fallen into complete disuse, and in the present day any one at all able to handle a loom considers himself to be a silk-weaver, and his services are gladly accepted in the hope that, in the course of time, he may may become a tolerable workman. For several years, and owing to various causes, but principally to the com-

petition of France and Germany, as well as to the difficulty of obtaining competent hands, a gradual decline in the trade has taken place. The struggle with these two countries, owing to the lower price at which the French and Germans are able to manufacture silk goods can hardly be prolonged. Nevertheless, the Antwerp silk continues to maintain a high rank in consequence of the durability and richness of the material and the brilliancy of its colour, which possesses the peculiar advantage of never fading, and of not being affected by acids. Owing to their price the sale of these silks is almost entirely confined to foreigners, chiefly English and Americans. As lately as the year 1860 there were still nine factories in existence, the least important of which employed five workmen, but they have since dwindled down to three, two of which only employ four looms each, the third having been reduced to so low an ebb that unless inclined to have recourse to extraneous assistance, the only hope reserved to this interesting branch of industry, it must inevitably undergo the fate of its predecessors, and succumb to the difficulties by which it is beset.

Manufacture of Sewing Silk.—This ancient branch of industry occupies a considerable number of persons especially devoted to the winding of silk. There are no workshops established for this particular purpose, the process of winding silk being generally carried on by the operatives at their own homes, and it may be said to form almost a distinct trade. This kind of work is usually paid by the bundle for China silks, and by the kilogramme for Levant silks, if they come in hanks.

The first category of silk is paid at the rate of 6 francs (4*s.* 10*d.*) per bundle, while the second barely reaches 3 francs 50 centimes (2*s.* 10*d.*) the kilogramme, notwithstanding that the latter is more difficult to wind. It is a custom which has prevailed from time immemorial, and has become the rule of the trade. Of the eight factories enumerated in the foregoing table one alone combined all the branches of the trade, employing 35 workmen and about 10 young girls. The silk reaches it in its raw state, and it is turned out entirely ready for use. In this establishment the silk is wound on winders worked by machinery according to a system practised in Switzerland, and superintended by one, two, or three girls, according

to the size of the machine. This labour-saving process has been introduced at Antwerp within the last ten years, and has facilitated the work to such an extent that as much silk can be wound in one day as would formerly have occupied a week. In the same factory silks are also dyed of all colours and shades by a rapid process. Lyons black, Swiss blue, and Antwerp black require a longer time and more care. Not only does the last-mentioned colour continue to enjoy a European reputation hitherto unsurpassed, but it has not, I am informed, been even imitated in any other country.

Carpenters and Joiners earn 28 centimes (about 3*d.*) per hour, and although their tools are inferior to those of English artizans in the same trade, the workmanship is quite equal to ours. They are somewhat slow in general, but they work long hours in summer, from five to eight, and thus gain a fair income.

Masons earn also 28 centimes per hour, and masons' labourers 23 centimes (2½*d.*) Their workmanship is fair, but there again the same remark holds good as to slowness in advancing with a job. So much is this the case that people generally prefer to buy a house ready built rather than submit to the annoyance, expense, and inconvenience which building one for themselves entails. Hence the building trade is in a great measure in the hands of speculative contractors, who seek to counteract this sluggish tendency of the workmen by subletting in piecework. Hitherto the plan has not proved very successful, and the great demand for this class of workmen at Antwerp, owing to the enlargement of the city, enables the men to insist on the system of payment by the hour, as "the longer the work lasts the better the pay."

This vicious principle, combined with the habit of hard gin-drinking, keeps this class of workmen in a state of ignorance and inferiority which is to be regretted.

Cabinet Makers and Upholsterers.—Of the former there are about one hundred establishments in Antwerp, five of which employ each from 15 to 75 workmen, one only employing steam machinery. Of the latter there are perhaps 200, this relatively large number being accounted for by the facility with which an intelligent workman can obtain a certain number of customers, and set up for himself in a small way, without much hope, however, of ever

doing business on a large scale. The journeymen upholsterers are considered as a rule amongst the least efficient artizans in the town. The cabinet-makers exhibit more skill, artistic work being generally undertaken by special contract, at a remunerative rate of wages.*

House Painters.—There are about 100 master painters in all, but a large number of unlicensed painters do business on their own account. The number of journeymen is about 500, to which may be added an equal number who only work at their trade for about half the year, and who during the remainder of the year are employed on board vessels, loading and unloading cargoes. They may be divided into four classes. 1. Superior workmen, who are employed on ornamental work, or in imitations of wood or marble of an elaborate description. 2. Workmen who paint wood and marble of a more ordinary kind. 3. Workmen who do coarser work, such as laying the first coats. 4. Those who are employed in painting the exterior of houses or buildings. Workmen of the first category earn from 50 centimes to 1 franc (5*d.* to 10*d.*) per hour, and they are also sometimes paid by the piece at the rate of from 25 centimes to 1 franc per mètre (a little over a yard), according to the importance or difficulty of the job. The wages of workmen of the second category are from 30 to 40 centimes per hour; those of the third and fourth categories 23 centimes (2¼*d.*) an hour.

Printers.—There are about fifty typographic establishments in this city, employing about 300 workmen, one-third of whom are connected with the press. Notwithstanding the increase of wages which has taken place of late years, the typographic art does not appear to have made any progress at Antwerp, and it is even stated that there are a larger number of workmen deficient in skill and education than formerly. The causes of this decadence are various. But few, if any, printing offices in Antwerp undertake the publication of works of an expensive description; workmen desirous of acquiring skill in their trade find, therefore, but few opportunities of improvement. The absence of skill on the part of many may also be attributed to their seeking employ-

* The marqueterie and buhl work, as well as the imitations of antique furniture, produced at the establishment of Mr. F. Van Halle, are extremely remarkable and well worthy of commendation, both as regards design and execution.

ment in newspaper offices, in which, without much trouble, they attain the maximum rate of wages. They enter them at too young an age, and not sufficiently grounded in elementary instruction to be enabled to continue their education simultaneously with the exercise of their calling. Having reached the goal with only an imperfect knowledge of their business, study to them is a profitless labour, offering no perspective of advantage or advancement. This state of things is greatly regretted by those who take an interest in the art of typography, and it is asserted that out of 100 journeymen printers probably not two have ever referred to the "Manuel Typographique" (Typographic Manual), a work of the highest importance to those who desire to perfect themselves in the art of printing. Cases may be cited, however, of journeymen printers who have risen by their talent and ability to be correctors of the press, assistants, and even editors of leading journals.

Diamond Trade.—The diamonds imported from the Brazils to London and Paris for account of the Netherlands and Belgium are thus distributed: one part, consisting of pure diamonds, are chiefly sent to Holland, and the other part, with defects, to Antwerp. The pure diamonds are employed for the manufacture of brilliants having 64 facets. A few individuals are engaged in polishing brilliants in Antwerp, but the principal article consists in the Antwerp roses taken from deep-coloured or imperfect stones (not fit for brilliants), split in small pieces, out of which roses are polished with 6, 12, or 18 facets, according to their shape. The thickest consequently have 18, and the thinnest 6 facets. There exists but one diamond factory at Antwerp, and that is engaged in polishing both roses and brilliants. The greater part of the rose polishers polish at their own homes and at their own mill, which occupies but a small space, and is usually turned by a woman or a lad. The number of persons engaged in the manufacture of diamonds at Antwerp is estimated at about 250, of which number 200 are polishers and 50 splitters. Diamond polishers are not in the receipt of fixed wages, as the majority work for their own account, and the money they earn depends upon the quality of the goods given to them to work upon, but it may be estimated that they make on an average 10 francs (8*s.*) a day. The Antwerp roses constitute a specialty,

not being manufactured anywhere else, in the same way that the manufacture of brilliants is considered a specialty appertaining to Amsterdam.

Boot and Shoe Makers.—There are about 110 master boot and shoe makers at Antwerp, employing together from 500 to 600 workmen, each of whom is assisted by two boys or apprentices. The journeymen live and work at their own homes, and generally by the piece. They may be divided into three categories as regards ability and skill. Workmen of the first class are rare, and they can earn from 40 to 50 francs (1*l.* 12*s.* to 2*l.*) a week. Second class workmen may make from 30 to 35 francs (1*l.* 4*s.* to 1*l.* 8*s.*); and those of the third catagory somewhat less. Women are much employed as trimmers and for finishing work.*

Bakers.—The number of bakeries established within the limits of Antwerp proper, exclusive of the suburbs, is somewhat over 100, and they employ on an average two workmen each. Of these establishments two—the "Boulangerie Bruxelloise" and the "Boulangerie Anversoise"—are joint-stock companies, and manufacture bread on an extensive scale and by machinery. Journeymen bakers employed in private bakeries live mostly with the masters, and in this case they only receive a part of their wages in money, the remainder being retained for their board and lodging, and it is stated as a fact that none of them are married men. The workmen employed by the companies above referred to are not in the same position, being, I am told, chiefly master bakers who have ceased doing business on their own account, and who live at home with their families. They receive the full amount of their wages in cash. One establishment only, that of M. de Smecht, produces what is known as Viennese bread ("pain Viennois"), chiefly rolls, which are made of the finest flour, of a quality imported either from France or from Hungary. The process by which this species of bread is manufactured is more or less a secret, and it requires to be baked in ovens specially constructed for the purpose, and not known or employed by the generality of bakers.

Musical Instrument Makers.—There are but few estab-

* M. Collignon, the most extensive manufacturer in the town, employs 30 workmen, with their assistants, and 10 female hands, making in all a total of 100 persons.

lishments engaged in the manufacture of musical instruments at Antwerp, only about four or five pianofore manufacturers, and those mostly on a small scale. They supply the neighbouring villages and the small towns in the province, and employ very few workmen. There are no makers of stringed or wind instruments either of wood or brass, and not one luthier capable of even properly repairing a stringed instrument. This is surprising in a country celebrated for art in all its branches, and in so large a town as this, which contains probably about 200 professional musicians. An important organ manufactory exists, however, at Malines, and an extensive establishment for the manufacture of brass instruments at Lierre in this province.

Bookbinders.—This trade has acquired considerable extension of late years, especially that branch of it which relates to the manufacture of ledgers, journals, and other commercial books, owing to the great increase which has taken place in the trade of the port. In the best establishment the work is remarkably good, both at regards finish and solidity, and it is worthy of note that formerly office-books, especially those employed in counting-houses, were often imported from abroad; whereas now, I am informed, the domestic demand is not only entirely supplied by the home manufacturers, but this class of books are not unfrequently exported from Belgium to other countries.

The population of the city of Antwerp proper (exclusive of the suburbs of Berchem and Borgerhout) amounted on the 31st December, 1866, to 123,571 souls. Of this number there were 7,802 male and 4,147 female artisans, together 11,949, or in round numbers 12,000, about 10 per cent. of the whole population. It may be estimated that there are at this moment rather over 13,000 persons, exclusive of the children and old people of both sexes past work, forming part of their families who belong to the working class living upon daily wages. Multiplying this last-named sum by three it would appear that the total working population of the city amounts to 40,000 individuals.

Of this number 1,516 families, in all 4,454 persons are incribed in the books of the administrators of the poor (Bureau de Bienfaisance) as in receipt of permanent outdoor relief, according to the following scale:—

	Weekly Allowance.			
	Winter.		Summer.	
	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.
Widowers.	F. c.	*s. d.*	F. c.	*s. d.*
With 2 children under 12 years of age ..	1 0	0 10	..	..
With 3 ditto	1 50	1 2½	1 10	0 10½
With 4 ditto	1 70	1 4½	1 30	1 0½
With 5 ditto	1 90	1 7	1 50	1 2½
Widows.				
With 2 children under 14 years of age ..	1 30	1 0½	0 90	0 9
With 2 children under 12 years of age ..	1 60	1 3½	1 20	0 11½
With 3 ditto	1 80	1 5½	1 40	1 1½
With 4 ditto	2 0	1 7	1 60	1 3½
With 5 ditto	2 20	1 9	1 80	1 5½
Families.				
With 8 children under 12 years of age ..	1 90	1 7	1 50	1 2½
With 7 ditto	1 70	1 4½	1 30	1 0½
With 6 ditto—				
From October 1 to March 31	1 50	1 2½	..	..
With 5 ditto—				
From November 1 to March 31.. ..	1 30	1 0½	..	..
With 4 ditto—				
From December 1 to the end of February .	1 0	0 10	..	..
With 3 ditto—				
From December 1 to the end of February .	0 70	0 7	..	..

Besides which it is estimated that about three-fourths of the working population are supplied with cards or tickets termed "cartes du service de santé," granted to those who may need them by the Board of Administrators of the Poor, which confer upon the holder, in case of the illness of any member of his family, the privilege of being attended by a physician, and of having recourse to the Dispensaries attached to the Board, either gratuitously or at a reduced price, according to circumstances. It may be further stated that all indigent persons over 14 years of age afflicted with any incurable disease, incapacitating them from work, are entitled to permanent relief not exceeding in amount 2 francs (1*s.* 8*d.*) per week; and that all artizans out of employment may be admitted to the Workhouse ("Atelier de Charité") during the daytime.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

It is by no means easy to establish in an absolute manner the British equivalent of the various rates of

wages prevailing in Antwerp, in purchasing power. I have, however, endeavoured to ascertain and classify in a Tabular form :—

1. The relative wages of artizans in a few of the principal trades on an average in England, and in this province.

2. A comparative statement of the prices of the principal articles of food consumed by the working-classes here and at home.

3. The same as regards clothing, lodging, lights, and fuel. The subjoined statements, in which a comparison is instituted between Antwerp and London, may therefore, I hope, throw some light upon a point to which Mr. Otway's Circular despatch has directed particular attention. They have been furnished to me by Mr. Wm. M. Inman, Professor of English Mercantile Law at the Commercial College of Antwerp, for many years a resident of this city, and whose position has brought him much in contact with the industrial classes in both countries, and they convey the results of a careful and minute inquiry into the subject.

(No. 1.)—Labour.

Trades.	Average Daily Wage in Antwerp.		Average Daily Wage in London.	Purchase Power as compared with London.
	Currency.	Sterling.		
	F. c.	s. d.	s. d.	Per cent.
Carpenters, joiners, and cabinet-makers	2 80	2 3	5 6	41
Stonemasons	3 0	2 5	5 10	40½
Mechanics	3 75	3 0	4 6	66¾
Bricklayers	2 80	2 3	6 3	36
House-painters	3 28	2 7¼	4 6	58
Engine-drivers	5 0	4 0	6 8	60
Smiths	3 0	2 5	5 9	42
Bleachers	2 0	1 8	4 6	37
Labourers	2 50	2 0	3 6	57
Candlemakers	2 25	1 10	6 0	30½
				10) 468¾
			Average ..	46¾

(No. 2.)—Provisions.

Provisions.	Average Price in Antwerp. Currency. F. c.	Average Price in Antwerp. Sterling. £ s. d.	Average Price in London. £ s. d.	Purchase Power as compared with London.
Bread, second quality. 4 lb. loaf	0 82	0 0 8	0 0 8	100
Butter, fresh .. per lb.	1 50	0 1 2½	0 1 6	124
Potatoes per ton of 20 cwt.	87 50	3 10 0	3 5 0	93
Bacon .. .. per lb.	1 0	0 0 10	0 0 11	110
Beef and mutton .. ,,	0 73	0 0 7	0 0 8½	121
Pork .. .. .. ,,	1 0	0 0 10	0 0 8½	85
Lard .. .. ,,	1 0	0 0 10	0 0 11	110
Sugar (moist) .. ,,	0 76	0 0 7½	0 0 3½	46½
Coffee .. .. ,,	1 28	0 1 0¼	0 1 1	106
Tea .. .. ,,	3 50	0 2 10	0 2 8	94
Milk .. .. per quart	0 25	0 0 2½	0 0 5	200
Eggs .. .. each	0 10	0 0 1	0 0 1¼	125
Soap (white) .. per lb.	0 82	0 0 8	0 0 5	62
,, (yellow) .. ,,	0 73	0 0 7	0 0 4½	64
,, (soft, green) .. ,,	0 32	0 0 3	0 0 2	66
				15) 1,506½
			Average ..	100½

(No. 3.)—Rent, Fuel, Lights, Clothing.

	Average Price in Antwerp. Currency. F. c.	Average Price in Antwerp. Sterling. s. d.	Average in London. s. d.	Purchase Power as compared with London.	
Rent of a workman's cottage similar to those in English towns like Antwerp .. per week	3 75	3 0	3 6	116½	
Coals (Antwerp and London compared)..	24 15	19 3½	18 0	93	
Lights—					
Petroleum (price the same as in England)	..	..	..	100	90½
Candles .. .. .. per lb.	0 83	0 8	0 6½	81	
Clothing—					
Tweeds .. .. .. per yard	8 75	7 0	6 9	96	
Fustian .. .. .. ,,	3 10	2 6	2 3	90	
Beaverteens .. .. ,,	3 10	2 6	2 3	90	
Flannel .. .. .. ,,	3 75	3 0	1 9	58	
Linen (coarse) .. .. ,,	1 25	1 0	1 1	108	
Calico .. .. .. ,,	1 4	0 10	0 6	60	
Prints .. .. .. ,,	0 75	0 7½	0 5½	76	
Merino .. .. .. ,,	1 70	1 5¼	0 10	58	80
Stockings .. .. per pair	3 0	2 5	1 4	55	
Shoes, men's .. .. ,,	8 50	6 10	7 6	110	
,, women's .. .. ,,	3 50	2 10	4 0	141	
,, children's .. .. ,,	3 0	2 5	1 6	62	
Hat, silk	12 0	9 7	7 6	78	
,, felt..	8 0	6 5	3 6	54½	
Cap	3 0	2 5	1 6	62	
			Average		95

The Table of Wages (No. 1) might have been considerably extended, but it would still have presented the same striking disparity between the purchase power of the workman's labour in the two countries. That labour is by no means the same either in quantity or quality. The startling difference in wages of 50 per cent. in favour of the English artizan is in some degree counterbalanced by the increased amount of work he performs. With regard to the quality of the work, the English workman, as a rule, produces a better article, particularly as regards durability and solidity.

In some trades, however, the Belgian artizan has acquired a well-merited reputation. Decorative painting, imitations of ancient oak furniture, lace making, the manufacture of boots and shoes, may be cited as being very superior and cheap in comparison with English work. But in other branches of industry, such as printed and dyed cotton goods, cutlery, pottery, &c., the English product takes the lead, both as regards taste and finish. The system of working by the piece is only in partial operation here, owing to a strong prejudice against it on the part of many workmen. It is affirmed by employers that the men refuse to work by the piece unless they can, by working in the same manner, earn a higher rate of wages than when paid by the day. Hence there is no sufficient inducement to industry and excellence among artizans, and even where the system of working by the piece is already adopted, there is not that degree of attention to work, and care in its execution, which might reasonably be expected. One of the largest employers in the boot and shoe trade here states:—

"From 500 to 600 hands are employed, and of this number about 25 only are considered first-class workmen. About 30 have a feeling of pride in their work; the rest care little how it is done provided they be paid for it. Working by the piece they are well remunerated, and therefore will only work when and as they please. Unhappily, one half of them, generally including the best hands, are given to drinking, and do not work more than thirty or thirty-five weeks out of the fifty-two. The same remark applies also to tailors."

The Table of Comparative Prices of Provisions (No. 2) shows little difference in the rates between this place and London, but it must not, therefore, be inferred that

the cost of living is the same to the working man in both countries. On the contrary, his style of living here is totally different. His food chiefly consists of potatoes. In the morning he breakfasts on coffee without sugar or milk, and rye bread; his dinner consists of vegetable soup, thickened with potatoes or rice, followed by potatoes and fish (salted or dried), with, occasionally, meat or a little lard. At 4 o'clock the same food as for breakfast, and for supper the remains of the dinner warmed up, with sometimes the addition of a salad or freshly cooked vegetables. Tea he rarely drinks, and cheese is a luxury he seldom tastes, although a raw apple, to give a relish to a slice of dry bread, is not disdained.

White or yellow soap are beyond his means, and consequently, soft or green soap is used for all domestic purposes, as well as for washing linen, and even articles of flannel.

On the other hand, the workman's luxuries, drink and tobacco, for example, are much cheaper. A small glass of gin, sold in England at 4*d.*, costs here ¾*d.* Tobacco sold in England at 3*s.* per lb., costs here 6*d.* to 10*d.*; and cigars sold at 4*d.* a-piece in England, cost in Belgium 6 centimes or about ½*d.*

The beer drunk here, although inferior in quality, is cheaper. "An Antwerp artizan leaving home with half a franc (5*d.*) in his pocket," I am told, "can purchase four pints of beer during the day; an English operative with 1*s.* can only buy three."

From the foregoing Tables and remarks it is evident that the working man here is neither highly paid nor fed; and perhaps these two causes, combined with the cheapness of spirituous liquors, may contribute in a measure to keep him in a position of inferiority in comparison with the English artizan. It appears astonishing, however, that a workman should, despite these drawbacks, not only maintain himself and family decently, but even save money, and occasionally buy the cottage he lives in out of his savings. Yet such is the fact, and the secret seems to lie in the habits of strict economy and thrift practised by the artizan. In this country, too, he marries much later in life than the English workman, and after marriage his wife and children are expected to contribute their share in gaining a livelihood.

Provisions, again, are procured in the cheapest possible manner. The artizan in most cases, particularly if he lives in the suburbs of the town, hires a piece of land at about 1*s.* per Flemish rood, equal to about 400 square feet; this he plants with the small potatoes remaining over from the previous year's supply, increased by the purchase of a few additional sets; and though it might be supposed that the smallness of the sets would yield only sorry results, yet by dint of hand labour in the mornings and evenings, by the artizan, himself, and his family, and by the judicious application of liquid manure from the tank—without which no working man's establishment is complete—a fair crop is obtained, sufficient in quantity for the use of the family during the winter. It not uncommonly happens that he has a surplus, the sale of which realizes enough to pay his house-rent. He also obtains a second crop of vegetables from the ground, and it is no exaggeration to say that he does not allow an inch of his miniature farm to remain unproductive.

Thus the Belgian artizan manages to live, and though his pay and his food are inferior to those of the English workman, yet his life is, in some respects, a less laborious one; his wants are few, and those wants are easily satisfied.

In forming an opinion upon the question of rent, it is no easy matter to find exact and reliable data; but the foregoing Table (No. 3) may be taken as furnishing an approximative idea on this subject.

In London a young unmarried workman would very probably live in a single room of a house in some of the lower parts of the town, for which he would pay from 2*s.* to 3*s.* a week. Some of the lower classes would live in small cottages, paying about 6*s.* or 8*s.* a week, including taxes, and the more steady-going men in pretty good houses at rents of about 24*l.* to 28*l.* per year. In each of these latter cases, however, it must be remembered that they would not occupy the whole of the house by any means, but would be sure to let out a great deal of it, thus covering the greater part, and, in many cases, the whole of the rent.

In Antwerp, I am informed that unmarried artizans are generally boarded and lodged in houses specially adapted to this purpose. There are usually two occupants to one bed, and the number of beds placed in

each room, varying from three to four, depends upon its size. The price of board and lodging is 8 francs 50 centimes (6*s.* 10*d.*) per week. Married workmen generally occupy a room, the rent of which, according to its dimensions, varies from 8 francs to 12 francs (6*s.* 5*d.* to 9*s.* 7*d.*) a month. But most of the working men reside in the suburbs, where the average weekly rent of a small cottage is about 3*s.*

It may be added that the size of the cottages is now fixed by police regulations at 40 superficial yards for each family. This rule is found to be highly beneficial, whether considered from the moral or the hygienic point of view.

Fuel is rather dearer here than in London, but the manner of burning small coal in closed stoves, projecting far into the middle of the room, prevails to a great extent, and is much more economical than when an open grate is used. For this reason we may presume that the expense of fuel, though nominally greater than in London, is not, in practice, more than it is to an artizan in one of the Midland counties at home.

In the matter of lights it appears that petroleum oil is generally adopted by the working classes here in preference to all other illuminating substances; but where dip candles are still in use they are both dear and of indifferent quality.

Clothing (as shown by Table 3) is dearer than in England. The working man generally wears cantoon trousers, a red flannel shirt above his linen one, with an ordinary waistcoat, the two combined serving the purpose of a sleeved waistcoat, and forming his working dress. Instead of shoes, "blokken," or wooden shoes (costing from 6*d.* to 8*d.* per pair) are worn alike by men, women, and children. In going to and returning from work a blue linen blouse is worn, and though not at first pleasing to an Englishman's eye, it undoubtedly gives the workman a clean and respectable appearance. A cap is the favourite covering for the head.

Almost every workman has a decent suit (including a coat) for Sundays and fête-days, and this is neatly brushed on Monday mornings and preserved with great care in the wardrobe to be found in the cottages of most artizans, and without which a man is considered as poor indeed.

II.—*Quality of Work.*

It must be admitted that the foregoing picture of the Belgian artizan is not in all respects a favourable one. He is slow in work, and not over conscientious in its execution.

But, on the other hand, though slow, he is patient, and not easily discouraged by difficulties; cleanly, frugal, and economical in his habits, of a peaceable, contented, and cheerful disposition; even when he has "taken a drop too much" he is not generally quarrelsome. On the contrary, when a workman begins to dance with and embrace his fellow workmen, it is taken as a certain sign that he has been indulging in liquor. He undoubtedly excels in certain branches of labour. The marble-cutters turn out admirable work; the lace-workers maintain their ancient reputation; those employed in the sculpture of wood display considerable skill, though not equalling the standard of the craftsmen of this province in former days.

Most workmen are able, moreover, to make a neat, rapid sketch of the articles they are required to construct.

The few English working-men scattered through this province at the present moment are chiefly employed as foremen or overlookers in manufacturing establishments, and are usually engaged under special contracts before leaving England. These workmen being in receipt of higher wages than those generally prevalent, occupy an exceptional position; they live comfortably, and often fall in with Belgian habits and ways. An English artizan, on the other hand, who might be induced to come over here as a stranger for the purpose of seeking employment, would be almost certain to meet with disappointment; and even should he by chance succeed in obtaining work, it is tolerably apparent from what precedes that he would not be likely to benefit by the change.*

Legal Position of the Working Classes.

According to the Belgian constitution working men

* The number of British-born subjects residing in the Province of Antwerp in the year 1856 was 577, being in the proportion of 1 to every 1,000 inhabitants (·01 per cent.).

stand upon the same footing as regards legal rights and privileges as the other classes of the community. There exists no distinction of orders, all Belgians are equal before the law, individual liberty is guaranteed.* Certain special laws and regulations, however, affecting the industrial classes have to a certain extent modified their legal position.

Amongst the former may be mentioned the law establishing the Tribunals termed "Conseils de Prudhommes," or Trade Councils, an institution which has proved of considerable benefit to these classes. These tribunals are established with a view of settling by conciliatory means, or failing these by judgments, the differences which arise either between employers and workmen, or between workmen themselves. Institutions of this, or of an analagous character, prevail in most Continental countries, and in this country the "Conseils de Prudhommes" are formed of at least six, and at most of sixteen members, chosen half from amongst employers and half from amongst working men. The conditions of election are: 1. That of being a Belgian subject by birth or naturalization; 2. Being at least 25 years of age; 3. Being a resident of the district; 4. Being able to read and write. The employers and workmen meet separately for the purpose of electing the members of their own class. The members of the council are regularly sworn in on entering upon their functions. One-half of the Council is renewed every three years, and a Registrar is appointed, by Royal Decree, from a double list of candidates prepared by the Council. As soon as the tribunal has been duly appointed and formed, a Committee of Conciliation, as it is termed, consisting of two members, one an employer, the other an artizan, is elected, who meet at least once in every week, and whose duty it is to endeavour to effect an amicable arrangement between the parties whenever a dispute is brought before them. Should they fail in this, the case is sent up to the council, where a renewed attempt at conciliation is made previous to the case being tried. The two categories of judges must stand on an equality in point of numbers, namely, at least two employers and two

* Belgian Constitution, Articles 6 and 7. See Decree of February 24, 1831.

workmen, before a case can be proceeded with. The council holds at least two sittings a month, but may be convened oftener, in case of need, by the President. Its decisions possess full judicial authority, and may be put into execution within twenty-four hours after sentence has been pronounced; but an appeal may be made either to the Tribunal of Commerce or the "Tribunal de Première Instance" (Civil Court) of the district, in cases involving an amount exceeding 200 francs. The remuneration to which the members of Trade Councils are entitled is calculated according to the average daily wages of artizans in each province, besides an allowance for travelling expenses for those who reside at a distance of over 5 kilomètres (about 5 miles) from the place of meeting. The Registrar and bailiffs attached to these Courts receive a fixed salary, and experts and witnesses certain fees for their attendance. The expenses connected with the Councils are defrayed by the townships or parishes situated within the jurisdiction of each Council, they being also bound to provide all requisite office accommodation for the same. The "Conseils de Prudhommes" have the power of inflicting fines not exceeding 25 francs (1*l.* sterling) in amount, and in default of payment, imprisonment for a term not exceeding three days, which latter may always be commuted for payment of the fine. The President and Vice-President of these Tribunals are appointed by the King for a term of three years, being selected from a double list of candidates proposed by the Councils, either from amongst their own number or without. The President has the casting vote. No professional lawyers being permitted to practise in these Courts, each party is heard in his own case.

In order to afford an insight into the practical operation of these Tribunals, I subjoin a statement of the cases brought before the "Conseil de Prudhommes" of this city during the last two years. The enumeration for 1868 is the following:—

	No. of Cases.
1. Refusal to pay wages	66
2. Workmen absent from duty without leave	25
3. Failure to execute contracts	21
4. Workmen dismissed without notice	20
5. Refusal to return or complete work given out	15
6. Refusal to repay money advanced	13
7. Refusal to deliver up the workman's "livret"	10
8. Refusal to restore tools	8
9. Contract cancelled	1
Total	179

158 of these disputes were settled by the Committee of Conciliation; 21 were referred to the Council for adjudication, 4 of which were settled amicably, and 17 were tried, judgment in 4 cases being given by default. During the year 1869, 207 cases were brought before this Tribunal, which are thus classified:—

	No. of Cases.
1. Refusal to pay wages	122
2. Workmen absent from duty without notice	20
3. Refusal to restore tools	12
4. Refusal to return or complete work given out	10
5. Failure to execute contracts	17
6. Refusal to deliver up the "livret"	9
7. Refusal to pay money advanced	8
8. Dismissal of workmen without notice	7
9. Contracts cancelled	2
Total	207

179 of these disputes were disposed of by the Committee of Conciliation, and 28 were sent up to the Council, of which number 20 were amicably settled, and 6 were tried, judgment in two cases being given by default. None of the penalties legally imposable were inflicted during either of these years.

It may also be stated that, according to law, all indigent persons, being Belgian subjects, who can prove that they are unable to defray the expenses attendant upon legal proceedings in any action at law, whether as plaintiffs or defendants, are entitled, on application to the Municipal Authorities, to obtain what is called a certificate of *Pro Deo*, on the production of which, should the litigant not have been able to procure the services of an advocate, the Court is bound to provide one for him "d'office" (officially), without charge; and he is exempted from the payment of all legal costs whatever. He is further entitled to the gratuitous services of notaries and

bailiffs.* Should a working man, therefore, from any cause, be unwilling to submit his case to the "Conseil de Prudhommes," he is not debarred, by reason of poverty, from applying to a higher Court.

On the other hand, it must be observed, that all artizans are by law required to possess a "livret" (or working man's passport), containing the name, age, and description of the bearer, besides a record of all his engagements; and, further, that according to Article 1781 of the Code Civil, in all disputes concerning wages between workmen and their employers, the master is believed upon his affirmation.

The principal laws more especially affecting the working classes now in vigour in Belgium, may be thus summarily indicated:—

1. The Law of the 22nd Germinal, 11th year of the Republic (12th April, 1803), relating to manufactures, factories, and workshops. This Law regulates the reciprocal rights and duties of masters, workmen, and apprentices; it establishes the duration of apprenticeships and the conditions of labour; prohibits coalitions amongst masters for the purpose of lowering wages, and combinations amongst workmen for the purpose of hindering or preventing work; it regulates, also, the employment of trade marks.

2. The Law of the 1st of October, 1810, concerning workman's "livrets."

3. The Law of the 6th of October, 1791, which determines the minimum rate of daily wages of labourers and of artizans,—a duty which in Belgium devolves upon the Provincial Councils, who fix the rate annually.†

* Decree of February 2, 1814. The benefit of the *Pro Deo* was subsequently extended to all religious communities and to the Administrators of the Poor; and in virtue of the Convention of the 22nd of March, 1870, to all indigent French citizens residing in Belgium.

† The rates established within the Province of Antwerp for the year 1869 were the following:—

	F.	c.	
District of Antwerp	1	50	per day.
„ Malines	1	25	„
„ Turnhout and other rural districts	1	0	„

The increased price of labour of late years has rendered the law practically inoperative as regards the towns, and its object may now be considered as mainly fiscal in connection with the agricultural districts, inasmuch as certain rural misdemeanours are still punishable by fines equal to double or treble the amount of a day's work ("journée de travail").

4. The Law of the 18th of May, 1827, relating to Associations of Workmen, established for loading, unloading, transporting, displacing, measuring, and weighing merchandize, which forms the basis of the corporations known as "nations" at Antwerp.

5. The Law of the 26th May, concerning gratuitous legal assistance to indigent persons (founded on the Decree of 2nd February, 1814); that of the 25th of June, 1826, on the bread tax; that of the 1st of July, 1858, relating to hygiene, in connection with the improvement of unhealthy localities; that of the 3rd of April, 1851, establishing Friendly Societies; and that of the 7th of February, 1859, instituting the "Conseils de Prudhommes."

It may be observed, that among the leading questions of the day in Belgium, few occupy a greater share of attention than those connected with the material well-being, as well as the moral and intellectual advancement of the industrial classes. Various legislative projects, originating either with the Government, or with private members of the Legislature, are under consideration, the most prominent of which relate to the employment of children in factories and workshops, co-operative societies amongst workmen, and the important question of compulsory education.

Health.—The sanitary improvements introduced at Anwerp of late years consist mainly,—1. In the closing and roofing-in of various canals; 2. In the regulations requiring the vaults of water-closets to be lined with masonry, and such vaults and main sewers to be provided with syphons; 3. In the construction of model lodging-houses for the working classes. The Decree of the Municipal Council of Antwerp, dated the 18th of June, 1866, in virtue of which the Burgomaster and Aldermen are empowered to take all necessary measures with reference to the salubrity of buildings, dwelling-houses, and their dependencies, as regards defective construction, want of ventilation, drainage, or all other causes of a nature to affect the public health, has also imparted a considerable impulse to hygienic progress. All measures of precaution contemplated by this Decree are taken at the instance of the Medical Commission (appointed in each province under the General Sanitary Law of the 12th of March, 1818), and of the City Engineer; and should a

proprietor fail to execute any alterations which may be prescribed, the Municipal authorities have full power to order them to be carried out at his own expense; and may also declare any buildings uninhabitable, and prohibit their use. Since 1866, the Decree above referred to has been frequently enforced; and it is satisfactory to hear, on undoubted authority, that these various measures have tended sensibly to ameliorate the health of the town, and notably to diminish the prevalence of the local fever alluded to as a source of so much evil, in the Report of the Royal Commission of 1843.

In the principal districts inhabited by the working classes the houses are still mainly ill-ventilated, and overcrowded, artizans' families occupying in most cases but one small room in the upper part of the house. Scattered over various parts of Antwerp there are also numerous courts, shut out from the street by a gate or doorway, and accessible only through a narrow alley, the existence of which would not be suspected by a passer by, unacquainted with the localities. These courts contain generally two or three rows of houses one story high, with perhaps a small garret above, and formed of a single room about 14 by 15 feet, or less, which is occupied by one household. One bed, a cradle, a stove for cooking, one table, and a chair or two, form the furniture of the apartment. The ventilation is necessarily defective, as there is no thorough draft, the houses being built back to back in double rows. The pump, and other necessary conveniences, are used in common by all the houses in each row. The rent of these dwellings is from 2½ to 3 francs (2*s.* to 2*s.* 5*d.*) per week; that of a single room in most of the houses in the town, excepting garrets ("mansardes"), is about the same, but the latter may be procured for about 1 franc 50 centimes (1*s.* 2½*d.*) a-week.

Speaking to a working man of the new model lodging-houses recently erected by the "Bureau de Bienfaisance" (Administrators of the Poor), in comparison with those to be found in the courts above described, he exclaimed, "Ah! ces sont des palais" ("They are palaces").

Wishing much, consequently, to see these new constructions, I was glad to find, on examination, that they constituted a real improvement upon all houses of this kind previously existing.

The locality selected for the erection of these dwellings, the Stuivenberg, is situated at a short distance from the town, in a somewhat populous but healthy situation, on a property belonging to the Administrators of the Poor. The construction of a row of forty-one working men's lodging-houses was first authorized by a Royal Decree, dated 3rd July, 1865. They were finished in the course of the year 1866; and by the end of 1868, two streets, intersected by a small square, and containing in all 167 houses of excellent construction, were terminated and occupied. The streets are about 30 feet wide, and are well paved, and lighted with gas. Each house is two stories high, and contains on the ground floor either one large room about 15 feet in width, by 16½ feet in depth, or three small rooms covering about an equal space. A good staircase leads to the upper story, which consists of two or three small bed-rooms, every house being, moreover, provided with a cellar, pantry, and other conveniences, with a good supply of water, and a small garden at the back of the house, suited to the cultivation of vegetables, or which may be used as a lawn for bleaching linen. The walls in the interior of the houses, as well as the doors, window-frames, &c., are generally neatly painted, and have an agreeable and cheerful aspect; and strange to say, the rent of these houses is but little higher than that of the miserably inferior town houses before described, varying, according to circumstances, from 3 to 4 francs (2*s.* 5*d.* to 3*s.* 2½*d.*) per week. It is true the artizan is probably a mile farther away from his work, at this distance from the town; but this disadvantage is amply compensated by superior accommodation and better sanitary conditions. It is a privilege, however, to be allowed to occupy these new houses, as, according to the rules of the "Bureau de Bienfaisance," they are only rented to respectable, well-conducted artizans, the tenant being also subjected to certain restrictions:—1. They can only be occupied by the persons named in the lease; 2. The tenant is in no case allowed to underlet or take any persons in as lodgers without the express consent, in writing, of the Administrators of the Poor; neither is he permitted, without written authority, to pursue any trade or business other than that specified in the lease, nor, for hygienic reasons, to keep on the premises pigeons, rabbits, pigs, or other animals;

3. Each tenant is expected to deposit, by way of security, upon taking possession, either the sum of 100 francs (4*l.*), on which he receives interest at the rate of 5 per cent. a-year, or a sum of 25 francs (1*l.*) in cash, the remainder to be paid by instalments of 50 centimes (5*d.*) per week. The example set by the erection of these model dwellings is no doubt a step in the right direction; and it is important to observe, that the result of the undertaking in a financial point of view, has been very encouraging.

The total expense of building these 167 houses, including the value of the land, drainage, paving, and all other charges whatever, amounted to 570,000 francs, about 22,800*l.*; the yearly rent amounts to 34,404 francs, about 1,416*l.*; thus yielding a profit of nearly 6¼ per cent. on the capital laid out.

I have summed up in the following form, according to the instructions, some of the principal points connected with health in this province.

III. Matters of Health.

Diet.—The climate of Antwerp is not such as to restrict a resident or an emigrant to any particular description of food. All such aliments as are in use in England may be freely employed here. The markets being abundantly supplied with meat, fish, and vegetables of all kinds, there is no difficulty in procuring all the necessaries or luxuries of life. The Belgian artizan, as has been previously stated, lives chiefly upon farinaceous or vegetable food, but this proceeds from necessity or from a desire to economize, and not from preference or hygienic considerations. The principal beverage of the working classes consists in coffee and beer. The latter is generally light and wholesome, if not indulged in to excess.

Clothing.—This should be, as a rule, warm and of a substantial texture, so as to resist the varieties of a changeable climate, in which cold and damp predominate; but it need not differ materially from that employed in England, the usual distinction being made between that intended for summer and for winter use. The same amount of physical exertion may be indulged in here as an artizan can put forth without risk in England.

Lodging.—The dwellings generally occupied by the working classes in this city are, as has been seen, as a rule, far from desirable, the premises being frequently ill-ventilated, badly drained, dirty, and overcrowded; but in the suburbs, at a moderate distance from the town, healthier lodgings can be procured in houses specially constructed for artizans and their families, such as the model lodging-houses at the Stuivenberg, and others of the same description erected of late years. As regards residence a word of caution is necessary. A stranger coming to Antwerp should be careful to avoid taking up his abode in the immediate neighbourhood of the river or of the canals, these localities being subject to the influence of malaria at certain seasons of the year.

Education.

The means of instruction afforded to the working classes, although education is not compulsory in Belgium, are varied and ample.

From four to seven years of age children of all classes are admitted to the infant schools, of which there are six or seven established at Antwerp. These schools are supported by subsidies from the city, the province, and the Government, and are largely frequented, as no charitable society or institution will afford assistance to families whose children do not attend them. The children of the infant schools are taken there by older members of the family, and remain at noon for dinner, which consists of soup and bread prepared in one large soup-kitchen for all the schools, and distributed to each school by means of a horse and cart at twelve o'clock.

The primary schools, of which there are six for boys and three for girls (the latter being also taught sewing), are intended for the admission of children from seven to twelve years old, at about which age, after being confirmed, they as a rule leave school. The subjects taught are Flemish, French, arithmetic, mental ditto, elementary geography, and a little history, generally sacred—primary education in Belgium, according to the arrangement termed Convention d'Anvers (Antwerp Convention) of 1842, being subject to the supervision of the clergy. The buildings, fittings, &c., of these schools are excellent in every respect.

Next in the scale are the "Ecoles Moyennes," or middle schools, of which there are fifty in Belgium, and which correspond in some degree to the National Schools of England. They are maintained by subsidies from the city, the province, and the Government, and solid instruction by trained teachers is given in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, French, Flemish, and the elements of English and German. All these schools are under Government inspection. The ordinary education of the children of the working classes usually, however, terminates, as has been stated, with the primary school; but the industrial schools ("Ecoles Industrielles"), of which there are 14 or 15 in Belgium, and to which may be added the "Ateliers d'Apprentissage" (industrial schools and workshops under the patronage of the Government), in Flanders,* supply further technical instruction to those who are destined to any particular branch of industry and who may wish to complete their education and acquire the knowledge necessary for becoming efficient workmen and competent foremen. These industrial schools were originally founded by the municipal authorities, or by private individuals, and were diversely organized, but the Government being called upon for aid in support of these establishments, was induced to recommend certain modifications, which led to their being established upon a uniform basis.

I. As a rule the instruction comprised mathematics as applied to industry, physics, chemistry, industrial mechanics, linear drawing, and drawing applied to industry and hygiene. Other subjects are taught according to the prevailing industry of the locality, such as elementary mineralogy, the rudiments of metallurgy, the principles of architecture, ornamental drawing, modelling, industrial constructions (building), stone-cutting, mining, the various processes of weaving, and the theory of tissues. Special lectures for engine-drivers are delivered at several of the schools. In some establishments the French language is also taught, as well as the history and geography of Belgium and the elements of book-keeping, and a preparatory school is attached to some of them where reading, writing, and the metrical system are taught. Save in exceptional cases the instruction is gratuitous. The course

* See Official Report on Technical Education ("l'Enseignement Industriel"), presented to the Legislative Chambers, April 2, 1867.

of study extends over a period of two, three, or four years. Instruction is given in Flemish in the Flemish provinces. Every school is provided with a library, a laboratory, and all necessary appliances.

II. Each school is placed under the superintendence of a committee, consisting in most cases of six or nine members, one-third of whom are chosen by the Municipal Authorities, one-third by the Provincial Council, and one-third by the Minister of the Interior. The Governor of the Province and the Burgomaster of the locality are admitted, *ex officiis*, to the meetings of the Council. The teachers or professors are appointed by the Municipal Authorities, subject to the approval of the Government.

III. According to the regulations the pupils are not admitted until they are 14 years of age, 12 being the minimum, and they are expected to be able to read and write with facility, besides being acquainted with all other subjects taught in the primary schools. In some of these schools an exception as regards the period of admission is made in favour of adults from 18 to 25 years of age. Pupils are examined before their admission by all the professors united as a Commission, under the presidency of the Head Master or Director. At the end of each year's study a general examination takes place, in the presence of a board appointed by the Committee, prizes, consisting of books, mathematical instruments, &c., as well as certificates of capacity, being given to those pupils who have more especially distinguished themselves by their industry, progress, and good conduct.*

In addition to the educational facilities above enumerated, the artizans of Antwerp possess the great advantage of being admitted gratuitously to attend the classes of the Royal Academy of Fine Arts, one of the first institutions of the kind in Europe; and the following Tables will show to what extent they avail themselves of this privilege:—

* Report of Minister of the Interior on Industrial Schools, April 2, 1867.

Royal Academy of Fine Arts of Antwerp.

Branches of Study.	No. of Pupils.	
	1850.	1868.
Painting and drawing from nature and from the antique	122	74
Principles of figure drawing	216	351
Landscape and animal painting..	9	10
Sculpture	86	39
Ditto, decorative	..	25
Civil architecture	164	230
Naval ditto	13	20
Art applied to industry	21	19
Principles of ornamental drawing	421	851
Copper-plate engraving	8	10
Total	1,060	1,629

Classification of the foregoing according to their pursuits :—

Professions or Trades.	1850.	1868.
Artists (painters)	171	78
House-painters	128	129
Sculptors	106	63
Ditto, decorative	..	62
Architects and draughtsmen	30	58
Engravers	11	19
Gold and silversmiths..	34	29
Printers and bookbinders	4	5
Embroiderers	..	10
Gilders	4	4
Upholsterers	21	17
Shipbuilders and sailmakers	13	15
Coachmakers and painters	13	30
Carpenters and joiners	211	276
Cabinetmakers	..	51
Marble and stone-cutters	20	68
Plasterers and masons	32	56
Blacksmiths and mechanics	22	33
Coppersmiths and tinmen	..	11
Persons in the military service	1	17
Various trades	35	31
Pupils whose vocation was undetermined ..	204	567
	1,060	1,629

As a further means of forming an estimate of the degree of education prevailing amongst the population of the province generally, I subjoin the following statement derived from the latest official returns:—

TABLE showing the Degree of Instruction possessed by the Young Men who were called upon in the undermentioned Years to draw Lots for the Conscription, or Compulsory Military Service.*

Province of Antwerp.	1847.	1867.
Number unable either to read or write	1,250	1,178
,, able to read only	261	160
,, able to read and write	905	949
,, possessing a higher degree of instruction ..	1,208	2,534
,, degree of education unkown	..	65
	3,624	4,886
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Proportion per cent. of those at least able to read and write	58·30	71·08
Proportion per cent. of those able to read only. ..	7·20	3·26

This evidently shows that a considerable progress in the spread of education has taken place in this province within the last twenty years, the proportion of young men unable either to read or write having been in 1847 more than one-third, while in 1867 it was less than one-fourth of the whole.

The progressive tendency will be even more apparent if the return of 1867 be compared with the statements contained in the early part of this Report respecting the educational acquirements of the industrial classes, derived from the Report of the Royal Commission of 1843.

The Sunday schools ("Ecoles Dominicales") which have of late years been instituted at Antwerp, and are attended by about 3,000 scholars of both sexes from 12 to 25 years of age, are also worthy of notice, as they undoubtedly form an important agency in elevating the minds of the artizan. But nothing equivalent to the cheap, healthy periodical literature accessible to working

* This Return comprises all the youths in the province who, in each of the years above specified, had completed their twentieth year.

men in England, nor to the valuable Mechanics Institutes so generally established in Great Britain exists in this country. The friends of the working man in Antwerp are, nevertheless, by no means indifferent to his condition. During the past three years popular lectures have been given, and have been numerously attended; a free public library, created especially for the industrial classess, and supported by public subscription, having been established under the patronage of the society called the Toekomst (the "Future") in the year 1863. The number of readers who at present (1870) frequent the library is 783, of whom 344 are between the ages of 17 and 25, and 134 between the ages of 25 and 35, all of the working class, such as butchers, bakers, drivers, clerks, tailors, boot and shoemakers, joiners, masons, mechanics, &c.: 8,101 volumes have been lent out this year, and, contrary to the experience at first, the gratifying fact has been noticed that the demand for works of fiction decreases, while that for solid works of instruction, especially histories, voyages, and travels, is increasing. The library is open only on Sunday forenoon and on Tuesdays and Fridays from 8 to half-past 9 P.M., and yet in seven years 61,704 volumes have been taken out to read, being an average of 72 volumes for each day on which the library was open. It is also remarkable and pleasing to observe that the books lent out are, as a rule, extremely well taken care of by the readers.

Night schools have been established within the last couple of years. They are open three times a week and are well attended. The prizes given consist in valuable tools used in the different trades, a system which has been highly approved of, and has led to very favourable results.

A school of instruction for lace-makers ("Ecole Dentellière") exists also, and was attended during the year 1869 by 200 girls. Twelve teachers are attached to the establishment, knitting and sewing being taught, as well as lace-making. A certain amount of general instruction, corresponding to that afforded in the primary schools, is also given by teachers specially appointed for that purpose.

Workmen's Decorations.

The word "decoration" does not at once convey to the English reader the idea implied by the same word in French, and yet it is not easy otherwise to describe the badge of distinction (worn externally like the star of an order of knighthood), which was instituted in Belgium in the year 1847 as a special mode of rewarding skillful and meritorious artizans. According to the Royal Decree establishing this industrial order, as it might be termed ("Décoration ouvrière"), it was intended to be exclusively conferred upon workmen and artizans "of recognized ability and irreproachable conduct," but subsequent decrees extended its use to persons employed in agricultural pursuits, and in the fisheries, the order being divided into two classes, the first limited to 500, the second to 1,200 persons. Those who have obtained this honourable distinction are entitled to wear the "decoration" attached by a tricolour ribbon (the national. colours) on the left breast. It consists in an oblong badge of elegant workmanship of gold for the first class, and silver for the second, relieved by a border of blue enamel and surmounted by a Crown, and forms, attached to its ribbon, a handsome ornament. It is accompanied by an artistically engraved diploma, setting forth the name, occupation, and qualifications of the recipient, the same being usually framed and hung in a conspicuous place in the artizan's dwelling. These decorations, which are greatly prized by working men, have had the two-fold effect of exciting as a stimulus to exertion on the part of the artizans and of benefiting the masters by inducing good workmen to remain steadily in the same employ, the distinction being generally granted on the recommendation of the employers, and being looked upon as a reward for long and faithful services, as well as for good conduct and proved ability. The way in which they are usually obtained is the following: the employer or master addresses a request to the municipal authorities, enumerating the particular claims of the candidate. The application, if favourably entertained at the Town Hall, is then transmitted to the the Commissary of Police of the district in which the artizan resides for his report as to the character and conduct of the applicant. Both must be excellent to

afford a chance of success, one of the conditions invariably insisted upon being that the children of the claimant regularly attend school. After undergoing this ordeal the application is submitted to the Minister of the Interior, upon whose recommendation the decoration is conferred by a special decree signed by the King.

The following is a list and description of the working men who have recently received the decoration of the second class, extracted from the "Précurseur" newspaper of this city of the 28th of September, 1870:*—

P. Jacobs, unmarried, 53 years of age, carpenter, has been for over forty years in the employ of M. Bex, timber merchant and contractor, at Antwerp. He is a very able workman, and has shown special skill in the construction of doors, window frames, and woodwork generally.

C. Van Offel, married, 62 years old, carpenter. Van Offel has been also for thirty-nine years in the employ of M. Bex, and is in no degree inferior to Jacobs in point of ability and conduct.

A. Moreels, married, aged 44, working jeweller. Moreels has been constantly employed in the workshop of M. Dandeloye, jeweller, at Antwerp, where he served his apprenticeship. He has been foreman to the establishment for over twenty years, to the entire satisfaction of his employer, who is happy to testify to the ability and good conduct of his assistant.

H. Plate, widower, aged 41, cabinet-maker. Plate has been for twenty-five years in the establishment of M. Colpyn, and has, according to the declaration of his employer, shown particular skill and taste in the ornamental branches of the trade. He is highly inventive and intelligent as a workman, and is of irreproachable character.

J. Constenople, married, 55 years of age, mattrass-maker. Constenople has been employed since 1837 by the Company for constructing beds for the army. He is a zealous, able, and well-conducted workman.

I am not aware that any order of merit of this description has been set apart for working men in any other country besides Belgium.

* The first class medal is, as a rule, conferred only upon those who have previously obtained the second class.

Miscellaneous.

Provident Institutions of various descriptions, intended for the benefit of the working classes, have been established of late years in Belgium. They consist chiefly of (A) Friendly Societies ("Sociétés de Secours Mutuels"); (B) Co-operative Societies ("Sociétés Co-opératives"), which are divided into three categories: 1, those which are exclusively established for the purchase of winter provisions; 2, those embracing the sale of provisions, fuel, and clothing by retail, co-operative stores; 3, economical restaurants; and (C) Savings-Banks ("Caisses d'Epargnes"), to which may be added the Banques Populaires ("People's Banks"), on the Schultze-Delitzsch principle, which combine the advantages of loan societies in addition to those of savings-banks.

According to the latest official returns the following are the Friendly Societies existing in the province of Antwerp:—

1. The Society of St. Joseph at Malines.
2. Association of Journeymen Tanners, Shoemakers, and Saddlers of the town of Lierre.
3. Association of Journeyman Tailors at Lierre.
4. Association of Operatives at Messrs. Wood's establishment (Phœnix Works) at Borgerhout.
5. Association of Operatives at the Sperm Candle Manufactory of Messrs. de Roubaix, Oedenkoven, and Co. at Borgerhout.
6. The Society called "Vrije Schoolwezen" (Free Schools).
7. The Society termed "Smeders Gilde" (Guild of Smiths).
8. Shoemakers' Association.
9. The Van Schoonbeke Society.
10. The "Kuipersverbond" (Association of Coopers).
11. Society of Printers ("Plantyns-genootschap).
12. "Gilde der Antwerpsche Ambachtslieden" (an Association composed of 827 artizans belonging to various trades).
13. "La Société Démocratique" (Democratic Society).
14. "Boekdrukkersverbond," consisting of 120 journeymen printers.

15. A Society formed of workmen connected with the Antwerp Arsenal.

16. Association of Journeymen Bakers.

17. Association of Drivers of Public Carriages.

18. Association of Journeymen Tailors.

19. "De Workmanspenning," formed of artizans employed in the Cockerill Shipbuilding Yards.

20. "Genootschapp der Diamantnijverheid," formed of journeymen lapidaries.

21. "La Fraternelle Anversoise". (the Antwerp Fraternal Society), composed of 208 persons employed in industrial pursuits, traders, brokers, commercial travellers, and merchants' clerks.

The Societies above enumerated, from No. 6 to the end of the list, are established at Antwerp.

According to the Report of the Minister of the Interior for 1868, the Co-operative Societies established in this province are: 1, an association for the purchase of winter provisions at Malines; 2, a society for the same purpose at Antwerp, the latter of which is considered the most flourishing association of the kind in Belgium, whereas the Malines Society, founded in the year 1845, is the most ancient.

Infant Asylums ("*Crêches*").—The society called "Des Crêches de Bethléem" possesses three separate asylums, and admits 165 children in all daily. The Crêche Marie Henriette, under the patronage of the Queen of the Belgians, the most important in point of accommodation, received 446 children during the year 1869. The expenses amounted to 17,622 francs 34 centimes (about 705*l.*), including 120*l.* for the rent of the building, which were met by private subscriptions, collections, tombolas, theatrical performances, and concerts given for the benefit of the charity, besides a subsidy of 20*l.* granted by the town.

Benefit Societies.—Societies of this description have also been established here of late years. An entrance fee of 1 franc (10*d.*), besides a regular monthly contribution of 35 to 50 centimes (3½*d.* to 5*d.*) entitles members, after the expiration of one year, to receive, in case of sickness, a subsidy ranging from 1 franc 25 centimes to 2 francs (1*s.* to 1*s.* 10*d.*) per diem, for a period, however, not exceeding ninety days or three months during the year.

Corporation of Workmen called in the Flemish language

"*Natie,*" *or* "*Nations.*"—These can hardly be termed "Corporations" in the strict sense of the word, being merely associations of workmen formed for the purpose of supplying gangs of labourers for loading and unloading ships, and for weighing and measuring merchandize on the quays and docks. This kind of work is performed by the job, the general profits being divided amongst the "natie-baesen," or head workmen, who employ the labourers wanted on daily wages.

"*Cercle de Patrons,*" *or Tradesmen's Clubs.*—A variety of these societies exist also. Their principal object is that of keeping up a friendly social intercourse amongst the masters or employers of labour in each particular trade, and of watching over their interests.

In the election of "Prudhommes" each member engages to support the candidate proposed by his own club.

There are no public baths and wash-houses for the working classes. Prizes for cleanliness, "prix de propreté," are distributed annually by the Municipal authorities to the most deserving amongst a certain class of the working population of the town, but the cleanliness here spoken of applies, no doubt, chiefly to the order and tidiness displayed by housewives in their dwellings, and as regards their personal arrangements, and not to personal ablution. A public swimming-bath established on the River Scheldt is, however, much resorted to by the population during the summer months.

Amusements.—The chief amusement of the male portion of the working classes probably consists in the nightly visit to the Estaminet. Both sexes, however, occasionally attend singing saloons as well as the Flemish (or National) theatre, the latter chiefly on Sundays, according to the Continental usage. The price of seats in the amphitheatre being only 50 centimes (5*d.*), admits of artizans and their families often availing themselves of the opportunity of witnessing theatrical performances. The stock pieces of this theatre consist mainly of translations of French melodramas and of vaudevilles (light comedies intermingled with songs), and farces by native authors. Great efforts have been made of late years to encourage a taste for Flemish literature, hitherto much neglected, the dialect spoken in the province of Antwerp being particularly good and pure, and approaching very

closely to Dutch. These efforts, while contributing no doubt much to the development of education among the labouring classes, tend, in an equal degree, to keep up a sentiment of nationality, and to maintain the ancient habits and customs to which the Flemish population are so sincerely attached.

(Signed) E. A. GRATTAN.

Antwerp, December 31, 1870.

BRAZIL.

Mr. Cobbold to Earl Granville.—(Received November 27.)

My Lord, *Rio de Janeiro, October 28, 1870.*

WITH reference to the late Earl of Clarendon's Circular despatch of the 7th June last, I have the honour to inclose herewith a further Report respecting the condition of the foreign industrial classes in Brazil.

I have, &c.

(Signed) T. CLEMENT COBBOLD.

Inclosure.

Further Report by Mr. Cobbold respecting the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Brazil.

I. IN regard to the purchase power of money.

The principal circulating medium at the present time is paper, complemented for small payments by a copper coinage, the value of the paper milreis varying according to the rate of exchange. The par of exchange is 27*d.* to the milreis, or 8,880 reis to the pound sterling.

Previous to the late Paraguayan war exchange was at par; during the war it gradually fell to an average of about 19*d.* or 20*d.* to the milreis, owing to the great demand for currency and consequent greater emission of paper. Other circumstances likewise influence the exchange, the state of the money market in Europe not being without its weight; but the gradual increase of exportation from this country during the last five years has altogether tended to maintain it at a firm rate.

The agriculturists may be said to derive a benefit from a low rate of exchange, since they are for the most part debtors to banks and capitalists. Coffee and other produce are sold at a higher price, and consequently they obtain for them more milreis, and are thus enabled, at a low rate of exchange, to repay the amounts owing by them at less cost to themselves.

An English mechanic, however, with a fixed pay in the money of the country, would be a loser from a low rate, since the prices of all clothing and imported commodities would be increased.

Wholesome food may be obtained at as cheap a rate as in England—*i. e.*,

Beef, 200 to 250 reis per lb.,—about 4*d.* or 5*d.* at the present rate of exchange.

Mutton at 500 to 600 reis, or from 10*d.* to 1*s.* per lb.

Veal at 400 reis, or 8*d.*, per lb.

Bread, 200 to 220 reis, or 4*d.* or 4½*d.*, per lb.

Beer at from 4*d.* to 6*d.* per bottle.

Rum, 4*d.* to 6*d.* a bottle.

In estimating the comparative cost of provisions in this country from the above figures, it must, however, be borne in mind that the quality of the meat, although good, can hardly be put on a par with that obtainable in England, while it is customary among the butchers to insist upon a very large proportion of bone being weighed and taken with it.

On the other hand, the high price of wheaten bread is less felt in a country where mandioca and maize afford no contemptible substitutes, not to mention various farinaceous tubers, such as those of the convolvulus and dioscorea.

Lodgings in the town of Rio de Janeiro would be found more expensive; up the country both custom and the climate enable working men to remain contented with a very inferior article to a well-built English cottage. Most of the colonists in the various parts of the country have, with the assistance afforded them on arriving, got very neat dwelling-houses, which they hold, together with the land, according to the original terms of their immigration agreements.

At the different mines of Minas Geraes, where perhaps the greatest number of English are to be found, cottages are usually built by the companies, the rent of those at Morro Velho mine being (according to Captain Burton). from 500 reis to 1$500 per month, or, in fact, merely nominal.

It is difficult to estimate the exact relative value of money with reference to the position of the labouring class, in two countries in which not only prices but commodities, and above all requirements, differ so essentially.

as in the present case. On the whole, however, there can be little doubt that upon equal money wages the real remuneration obtained by an artizan in this country would be inferior to that received on a like footing in England. It is, in fact, doubtful whether an English mechanic would not enjoy as much comfort on 15*l.* per month in his own country as on 20*l.* per month in Rio de Janeiro.

Few English labourers are at present employed in this province. The workmen engaged in road-making, construction and repairs of railroads, and for agriculture, are for the most part Portuguese, who, being very economical and sober, contrive, with a daily pay of from 3*s.* to 4*s.*, to economize at least the half.

The Company União and Industria, which is a large employer of labour in road and railroad making, and in some kinds of cultivation (also as waggoners, drivers, and mechanics), pay their workmen on the railroad from 2$ to 2$400 per diem; their waggoners, and those employed in cutting grass, &c., 30$ to 40$ a month, and their food. The mechanics of this company, employed in their workshops at Juiz de Fora, earn wages varying from 2$500 to 4$500 per diem. These latter are all Germans, as are also the coachmen and some of the road labourers.

The less enervating highlands of the mining districts are better suited to the Englishman, and especially to the Cornishman. In June 1867 there were 86 miners and 55 workmen and mechanics employed at the Morro Velho mine, according to the report of Captain Burton, late Consul of Her Majesty at Santos, where, being well paid and cared for, they ought to be able to put by considerable sums of money.

II. With respect to the power of preserving health.

Rio has gained a somewhat unenviable reputation in consequence of the appearance of yellow fever in 1850, and its return in 1869-70. Statistical data, however, show the mortality to be in truth below the average of most large cities. With a population of 400,000 souls, the deaths may be put down at about 9,000 per annum.

Wholesome meat of good quality is an essential part of the foreigners' diet in this country, owing to the

dampness of the climate, the depressing effects of which require to be combated by a support to the system; and this desideratum can fortunately be obtained at the rates above quoted. On this account, too, while excess is fatal, it must not be understood that total abstinence from all stimulating drinks is to be recommended, especially in the case of those hitherto accustomed to a reasonable quantity. Spirits ought to be as much as possible avoided. Unfortunately, the cheapness of the rum of the country facilitates indulgence.

The hygienic value of cleanliness is of course rather enhanced than diminished in a warm climate, and in this province at least there is generally no lack of water.

When the temperature rarely falls so low as to cause the outward air to be looked upon as an enemy, cracks, crannies, and careless building usually do the work of more scientific ventilation. Contrivances for this purpose are, however, not unfrequently adopted where required. Good drainage, carried out by an English company, has tended much to improve the health of the inhabitants of the town.

III. The questions under this head can hardly be answered categorically in a young country like Brazil, where manufacturing industry can scarcely, with certain exceptions of small importance, be said to exist.

What little skilled work is executed in the country is either performed by foreign artizans, who bring with them the traditions of their own countries with respect to the honour of the trade, and retain them more or less, or is carried out under the vigilant superintendence of European foremen. Brazilian employers of labour are far from being less keenly alive to the value of punctual, efficient, and unequivocal work, on account of any shortcomings that they may unfortunately experience in these respects among their own countrymen, while the variety of nationalities to which artizans in this country belong give them peculiar opportunities of distinguishing between the relative zeal, skill, and trustworthiness of foreigners from different places.

Subordinate engineering work, construction, superintendence, and repair of machinery, bridges, &c., gas, sewerage, and plumbers' work, superior carpentering and joiners' work, saddle-making, carriage-building, brewing,

and many other trades, employ all of them numbers of foreigners, and to men with some little money of their own might offer good openings; but it is rather from the fact that the superior work done in these trades is entirely in the hands of foreigners, than from any differential rate of wages earned by them through the inferiority of native work.

Not a bad example of what foreign skill does occasionally perform in Brazil is the coach "Celerity," now running from Petropolis to Juiz de Fora, and an exact model of its famous English namesake. This vehicle is entirely the work of German artizans at the latter of the above-mentioned places.

(Signed) T. CLEMENT COBBOLD.

Rio de Janeiro, October 28, 1870.

PARÁ.

Consul Drummond-Hay to Earl Granville.—(Received October 17.)

My Lord, *Pará, September* 6, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to inclose herewith my Report on the industrial classes of the provinces of Pará and Amazonas, drawn up in accordance with the instructions contained in Mr. Otway's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last.

I have, &c.

(Signed) JAMES DE V. DRUMMOND-HAY.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Drummond-Hay on the Industrial Classes in the Provinces of Pará and Amazonas.

Brazil, September 1870.

THE population of the two extreme northern provinces of Brazil, Pará, and Amazonas, is composed of several distinct classes or races of man, namely, the Tapuyo or civilized Indian, the white man descendant of the Portuguese, Europeans and foreigners from all countries, the negro, and lastly, the several lineages which have sprung from the free mixture of all these races, and amongst whom, especially in the lower orders of the towns, black blood appears to predominate.

The immense area included in the two provinces of Pará and Amazonas may be roughly computed at about 400,000 square miles, and the existing population at not more than 350,000.

The proportion of slaves is small as compared with other provinces in the empire, hardly amounting to 20,000. Their number is yearly decreasing, for nowhere in Brazil is the feeling that the abolition of slavery is necessary and imminent greater than in these provinces.

The proportion of available labourers is very small, probably about one-tenth of the population, as, though

there is some poverty, there is little suffering, for nature is prodigal though men are inert, yet from this very cause is the want of labourers in the field and towns severely felt; labourers and workmen are clamoured for, enabling the few to make, up to a certain limit, their own daily and often exorbitant stipulations for wages.

The European who immigrates to this country, and by temperate habits becomes acclimatized, competes successfully with the native, suffering no further ills from the climate than others of the white or dark race who are born and bred here.

The negro or mulatto, whether as free man or slave, is especially serviceable, but the apathy of these races enables the European to take precedence.

Of all races, however, which appear in these provinces, the Portuguese, as a more cognate people, are the most successful. In the two provinces there are about 20,000 Portuguese, and in the capital of Pará, out of a population of 35,000 inhabitants, there are not less than 5,000 Portuguese. These are engaged either in commerce, or occupy such trades as shopkeepers, smiths, carriers, drivers, and boatmen, to the almost total exclusion in these trades of every other nation, and this owing not only to their numbers, but to their speaking the language of the country, having the same customs, adapting themselves more readily to the food of the lower orders, and also, it must be admitted, to their general hardworking, sober conduct, and the clanship kept up amongst them.

The labouring agricultural population is principally composed of the Tapuyo Indian, upon whom falls in a great measure the burden of domestic employ, as also in meeting the Government demands for recruits for the national service.

The artizan workers are a mixture of all nationalities, amongst whom Germans and Portuguese appear as carpenters, joiners, and masons, Englishmen and North Americans as engineers and mechanics.

All these classes have employed and set an example to the native races, who learn with aptitude the several trades or professions.

In all clever workmanship the mulatto, whether half Indian or half white man, has shown his capability in an eminent degree, by his general intelligence, soberness, and attention to his work. Yet does the native work-

man require kind and encouraging treatment, and refuse to be driven, or to be spoken to harshly at his work, for he then avails of the scarcity of workmen to resign his engagement, and seek employment elsewhere.

As has been already made known in my annual Reports on the trade and commerce of Pará and Amazonas, the extraction of rubber, which is here so prodigally yielded by nature, and requires little skill or experience from the labourer, has absorbed all attention over agricultural produce.

The sugar-cane is only allowed to grow for the manufacture of cachass, or white rum, and sugar is imported from the southern provinces. The cultivation of cotton, rice, coffee, and many other products is totally neglected, though known to be yielded by this soil in abundance and excellence, and though every facility is afforded for transport by the numerous rivers and water-ways which net the land.

The labour of extracting rubber is so small, and yet so remunerative, that it is only natural to mankind, and especially to the yet sparse and comatose population of these provinces, to prefer that occupation, in which a family, gang, or single man, erect a temporary hut in the forest, and living frugally on the fruit and game which abound, and their provision of dried fish and farinha,* realise in a few weeks such sums of money, in an ever ready market, with which they are able to relapse into the much coveted idleness, and enjoy their easy gains until the dry season for tapping the rubber-tree—June to January—or collecting nuts' returns, rather than by a little exertion to clear the forest, till the ground, and watch their crops for a few months, before they can obtain a return for their expended capital.

An expert and steady Tapuyo, the class chiefly employed in extracting rubber, will collect about 8 lbs. English per day, which, on an average, is worth 8 milreis, or about 13*s.* 4*d.*, *i. e.*, 1*s.* 8*d.* per lb.

In a good rubber district, men are known to extract even an arroba of rubber, or 32 lbs. English per day, but I have given the quantity of 8 lbs. of rubber as the average collection per man.

* Flour of the mandioca root.

The method of extracting the milk from the rubber-tree is primitive, and still more primitive and rude is the manner of smoking or curing the rubber milk over smoke issuing from a funnel, under which is fired an oily nut, the fruit or seed of a different tree than that from which the milk is extracted. Already, however, at this very time, an American and an Englishman have simultaneously presented for approval simple inventions by which the operation of smoking the rubber is more speedily performed than the mode at present in use.

The little agricultural produce grown for home consumption is also in the hands of the Tapuyo, and is seldom undertaken by the white man.

Whilst nature yields so prodigally as in this country the abundant riches which man has but to put forth his hand to gather, without any real call on his energy or industry, no attempt will be made, no inducement is held out to an inert population to profit by the richness of the soil, nor assist even that very nature by a little industry to increase their comfort and wealth.

Already the more accessible rubber districts are, it is said, becoming exhausted, and give a less yield than in former years, yet the rubber-bearing country is so vast that the constantly newly-discovered sources more than supply the deficiency occasioned by the exhaustion of the old, calls only for the slight exertion of extra travel, and has not yet imbued into this people the idea of planting the rubber tree or caring for its growth.

From the foregoing remarks it will be seen that, so far as agricultural labour is concerned, little can be said beyond the repeated fact that, should proper encouragement be given by the offer of good land and other early conveniences to the gradual and voluntary immigration of an industrious race, who would not allow the extraction of rubber or simple gathering of nature's produce to absorb their attention over all other labour, there is no doubt that, in the course of a little time, comfort and wealth would be enjoyed by the production of cotton, sugar, rice, cacao, and other numerous articles indigenous to these provinces, and the condition of a country yet in the very infancy of civilization materially enhanced.

Food, or the necessary aliment of man, is cheap and abundant, but luxuries are dear, being double and treble the price in England.

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The native labourer or workman requires little luxury. His meals are often bought and eaten near the site of his work, and consist generally of dried or salted fish or meat with farinha, flour of the mandioca root, which may not be so nourishing as bread, but is satisfying, and pleasant to the palate, a cup of coffee and a drink of cachass.

There are no manufactories on any large scale in these provinces. Cotton is neglected, and the small manufactories for bricks, soap, or the like, for home consumption, or, again, workshops and workmen, are all yet in the very cradle of progress, and offer little assistance for forming correct statistics as to class workmanship or bodies of workmen.

Wages vary from 3 to 5 milreis, and even to 7 milreis per day, equal (at an average exchange of 1*s.* 8*d.*) to 5*s.*, 8*s.* 4*d.* and 11*s.* 9*d.* sterling.

The regular hours of labour are usually from 6 in the morning till 4 in the afternoon, from which time one hour or one hour and a-half is taken for a midday meal.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

The purchase power of money in these provinces is, on the whole, immensely inferior to the standard in England. Luxuries are exorbitant, and only one or two of the necessaries are to be had cheaper than in England or at what an English artizan would consider a reasonable rate. Thus, with reference to food, clothing, and house accommodation, it is found that in food only the following articles compare favourably with English prices, viz.:—

Coffee, per lb.	..	Pará, 10*d.*	..	England, 20*d.*
Beef, per lb.	..	Pará, 6*d.*	..	England, 10*d.*

The quality of the beef, owing principally to the difficulties attending the transport of oxen from the interior is, however, very poor, containing a large portion of bone, and, on the whole, the lesser price cannot be accepted as a fair criterion.

Bread, butter, flour, tea, and other table necessaries may be taken at double to treble English prices.

Fish, fowls, and other meats, even exceed this proportion, and, notwithstanding the fertility of the soil,

the purchase of vegetables is altogether beyond a working man's means, and can only be obtained by his own industry, should he be fortunate enough to secure a piece of ground for this purpose.

Household economy, is in many instances, difficult to practise, as it is found absolutely necessary to cook all fresh food when purchased, and nothing cooked can be kept in good condition for many hours.

House accommodation is difficult to obtain; rooms require to be large, and the necessity of ventilation prevents the economy of space in building, so that, taking into account the high wages of artizans and labourers employed in their construction, the rent of buildings which are of very inferior quality is, on an average, three to four times that of England.

Thus, an artizan in England, living in an 8*l.* house, would not be more comfortable here at a rent of 24*l.* to 30*l.*, and even at these figures would find considerable difficulty in obtaining a house.

Clothing is, of course, lighter than in England, and, with the exception of shoe leather, should not be more expensive. This article is, however, very expensive, as, whether from the humidity of the climate, or other causes, boots and shoes are quickly worn out.

As may be concluded by these remarks, the money power of 10*l.* sterling in England may be considered fully equal to 20*l.* in Pará.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

For the preservation of health in this climate, temperance both in eating and drinking is certainly to be recommended, but not abstinence either from meats, light wines, a moderate use of beer, or a mixture with water of the native sachass, as the exhaustive nature of the climate, producing a continual perspiration, would otherwise weaken and exhaust the system. On the other hand, over-indulgence, especially in drink—a failing which it is to be regretted many Englishmen are here justly taxed with, quickly produces bilious disorders and often blood fevers, resulting in many serious illnesses and not a few sudden deaths.

Over-exertion, exhaustion, or exposure to the rain or sun, should be, as far as possible, avoided. At the same

time a man need not be too careful of himself; and a fair amount of work may be done without danger. Regular habits, and not too much irritability of temper, are of course to be recommended.

Houses, as already mentioned, are difficult to be had, and have to be taken without always attending to convenience of locality.

Ventilation, as a rule, is good; drainage bad, and generally not over clean. In low-lying localities the houses are not free from miasma and air poisonings; but such is not, on the whole, here to be dreaded, neither are the risks of health from these causes greater than in other parts of the world.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The standard of work is much lower than in England; but there is no doubt that in turning out work, high-classed artizans in Para, as elsewhere, try to sustain their character.

As to "making a stand against turning out bad work," the quality of work being at the best inferior, and the wages of workmen, on the charges made, almost what such workmen choose to exact, this question does not seem applicable to Pará, but is more so to places where the wholesale manufacture of class articles occur. No doubt the sense of honour of many artizans would lead them to be careful in their work; but there is, I apprehend, no class of this kind.

In conclusion, I have to observe, that any intelligent, skilful, and sober artizan would be, and is certain, of remunerative employment in Pará. He would have difficulties at first to contend with, such as the language, house accommodation, and occasional slight illnesses, until he became acclimatized and accustomed to the usages of the country. But if he was a persevering man, not wasteful in his expenditure, not too urgent in his want of society, and lived with regular, quiet habits, avoiding the many vices which afflict strangers in Pará, he would, as a rule, be able considerably to better his circumstances, and rise in a brief period in reputation, even above his class in England. Unhappily, however, the greater portion—not the whole—of English artizans who have hitherto appeared at Pará, seeking employment,

have been sadly wanting in some of these qualities, especially in their extraordinary addiction to drink, and in consequence have, but in few cases, realized their wishes, or reflected credit on their countrymen resident in this place, who feel such discredit in their daily intercourse with Brazilians and natives of other countries, who are generally of far more temperate habits.

(Signed) JAMES DE V. DRUMMOND-HAY.

Pará, September 6, 1870.

PERNAMBUCO.

Consul Doyle to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 29.)

My Lord, *Pernambuco, October* 31, 1870.

WITH reference to the Circular despatches addressed by the late Earl of Clarendon to Her Majesty's Representatives abroad, respecting the condition of the industrious classes in foreign countries, I have the honour to transmit herewith to your Lordship a copy of the form attached to that Circular, filled in as accurately as the information I have obtained and my own knowledge of the country will admit.

I may observe that the European field or agricultural labourer would be of no use in this country. He could bear up against the climate but for a very short time.

The mechanical engineer who comes here without a special contract often finds a difficulty in obtaining employment, and, even should he do so, he seldom remains long, either through a dislike to the life he has to lead, or, which is too frequently the case, through intemperate habits.

In truth, I should be sorry to encourage European immigration, to this part of the country at all events.

I have, &c.

(Signed) BENTINCK W. DOYLE.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Doyle on the Condition of the Working Classes in District of Pernambuco.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
	Reis. Reis.	*s.* *s.*	
Labour ... ... The field for the artizan class is very limited, in consequence of the high rate of dut es upon all kinds of raw material imported, and the admission of manufactured machinery almost free. Ninety per cent. of the foreign mechanics employed here are specially engaged in Europe, generally for three years. Few of these fulfil their engagements, owing to difference of language, diet, custom, and particularly the total absence of any kind of amusement suited to the taste of a European mechanic.	4$000 to 6$000	8 to 12	About half less than in England, taking into account all charges and expenses that would be incurred by a working mechanic.
Provisions, per diem .. .. The foreigner must reside some considerable time in the country before he acquires a liking for the food in general use.	2$000 3$000	4 6	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Should be as similar as possible to that used in England, but farinaceous and herbaceous food should preponderate.

Clothing.—Light in colour and texture, woollen where possible, especially next the skin.

Lodging.—Well ventilated and comfortable lodgings, suited to the climate, obtainable at 5$000 to 6$000 per week (at 24*d.* = 10*s.* to 12*s.*).

III. *Quality of Work.*

The class of skilled labour most likely to succeed here I believe to be mechanical engineers and millwrights.

(Signed) BENTINCK W. DOYLE.

Pernambuco, October 31, 1870.

RIO GRANDE DO SUL.

Consul Callander to Earl Granville.—(Received November 28.)

My Lord, *Rio Grande do Sul, October 20, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith a Report on the industrial classes at Rio Grande do Sul and Pelótas, and in this province generally; and a copy of a Report on the condition of the industrial classes at Porto Alegre.

It will be seen from my Report that I cannot recommend artizans and labourers to leave Great Britain in the expectation of bettering their condition in this province.

As the question of the total emancipation of the slaves gains ground, no doubt the attention of the Brazilian Government will be more fully directed towards encouraging immigration, and hereafter there will be a better demand for skilled labour in this province and throughout Brazil than obtains at present.

I have, &c.

(Signed) RANDAL CALLANDER.

Inclosure 1.

Report by Consul Callander on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Rio Grande do Sul.

IN the Province of Rio Grande do Sul, the proportion which the artizan and industrial classes bear to the other classes is but limited. The chief industry of the province is cattle-breeding, and the business connected with the slaughtering establishments, in preparing jerked beef, hides, and bone ash for exportation.

All slaughtering establishments ("charqueades") possess slaves, varying from 80 to 100 and more. Some of the proprietors employ free workmen during the busiest season of the year, which lasts about six months. The workmen receive 6*l.* a-month, with board

and lodging; but the food is merely beef and farinha, and they sleep in sheds.

The occupation is very laborious, dirty, and disagreeable.

In the towns of Rio Grande and Pelótas, the artizans and labourers are chiefly all foreigners, such as Portuguese, Germans, and Italians; there are no Englishmen.

Tailors and shoemakers are paid by the piece:—

Tailors receive for making a coat, 1*l.*; pair of trousers, 4*s.*; vest, 4*s.*
Shoemakers receive for a pair of boots of good quality, 5*s.*
Carpenters are paid by the day, at the rate of 5*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.*
Cabinetmakers are paid by the day, at the rate of 5*s.* to 5*s.* 6*d.*; sometimes they are paid by the piece.
Ship-carpenters receive from 8*s.* to 9*s.* a-day.
Caulkers, 7*s.* to 8*s.* a-day.
Masons, 4*s.* to 6*s.* a-day.
Blacksmiths, 3*s.* to 5*s.* a-day, with board and lodging.
Bakers, 3*l.* 4*s.* per month, with board and lodging.
Domestic servants (female), 2*l.* to 3*l.* a-month.
Ditto, cooks, 3*l.* to 4*l.* a-month.

The prices of provisions are as follows:—

Beef, about 2*d.* per lb.
Mutton, from 4*d.* to 8*d.* per lb.
Pork, from 4*d.* to 6*d.* per lb.
Fowls from 2*s.* to 4*s.* each.
Eggs, from 1*s.* to 2*s.* 2*d.* per dozen.
Bread, about 5¾*d.* per lb.
Milk, from 2*d.* to 4*d.* per quart, in summer.
Ditto, from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per quart, in winter.
Vegetables and fish, moderate prices.
Firewood, dear, 8*s.* to 10*s.* per 100 sticks (each stick about 3 feet long by 10 inches in circumference).
Drinking water, 1*d.* per bucket (about 3 gallons).
Salt butter (imported), from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* per lb.
Bottled ale and porter (imported), 2*s.* per bottle, retail.

All imported articles of food, clothing, earthenware, &c., are about 100 per cent. dearer than in England.

As regards food, beef, mutton, pork, and poultry are of inferior quality; fish, bad: vegetables of average quality; bread not very good.

Nearly all other articles of food are imported from Europe or the United States.

The drinking water is the drainage of surface rain-water, and ought to be passed through proper filters before being used.

Milk is generally of poor quality.

The common rum of the country (Caxaça) is not palatable to a stranger.

Wines, spirits, and malt liquors are imported.

The town of Rio Grande do Sul being only 2 or 3 feet above the sea level is damp; the houses are badly built and the rooms badly ventilated; bed-rooms generally have no windows. Small houses in general have no gardens attached, only small yards; rents vary from 30*l.* to 48*l.* a year.

The streets, with one or two exceptions, are unpaved, holes are made in them in which the rubbish of the town is put, and they are then covered up. After rains the water lodges in the streets and stagnates, causing most abominable smells necessarily injurious to health. There is no drainage or water-closets.

Though rheumatism and typhoid diseases prevail to some extent, this town cannot be called unhealthy; it owes its salubrity to the almost constant winds.

Warm clothing is required in winter on account of the cold and excessive damp. In summer light clothing is necessary, but with thin flannel or merino worn next to the skin.

Pelótas, as a residence, is better than Rio Grande do Sul, as it is more inland and lies somewhat higher.

It is not well supplied with drinking water; many of the houses have cisterns for rain-water.

Porto Alegre is supplied with good water.

This province generally is very healthy.

With respect to paragraph 3, the remarks applied to Porto Alegre are also applicable to Rio Grande and Pelótas, with some slight modifications.

I cannot say that the quality of the work is of a first-class description, and it cannot equal good British productions.

Notwithstanding the want of good artizans, I do not think that there is a sufficient demand to justify Englishmen to come to this Province for the purpose of bettering their condition.

A few single men, if very steady and energetic, might make a competence, but this Province could absorb very few annually.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
Labour—	Reis.	£ s.	
Per month.	75$000	7 10	About equivalent to the same amount in England, especially in large towns.
Provisions—			
Per month.	40$000	4 0	The higher house-rent here being compensated by the dearness of butcher's meat at home.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Must be modified according to climate and season. Unripe fruits and ardent spirits should be abstained from.

Clothing.—During the summer months, from October to April, light clothing is required. During the remainder of the year people clothe much the same as in the United Kingdom. The cost of clothing for working men is from 80 to 100 per cent. dearer than in England.

Lodging.—Houses suitable for artizans are much inferior to the same class in most towns of Great Britain. Rents vary from 2*l.* 10*s.* to 4*l.* a-month.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Inferior in every respect to first class workmanship at home.

(Signed) RANDAL CALLANDER.

Rio Grande do Sul, October 17, 1870.

Inclosure 2.

Report by Vice-Consul Heinssen on the Condition of the Industrial Classes at Porto Alegre.

THE proportion which the artizan and industrial classes bear to the others, particularly as regards the natives, is but small, since the Brazilians are not very fond of learning a trade, and employ themselves more in commerce, as shop-keepers and cattle-breeding, but, above all, aspire to be employed by the Government.

Of the industrial classes in our town, about seven-eighths are Germans, or of German descent, and are, with but few exceptions, well-to-do, and some may even be called rich.

Tailors, shoemakers, saddlers, blacksmiths, joiners, carriage-builders, bookbinders, bakers, hatters, butchers, tinkers (tinsmiths), and painters, are most part Germans, and all are in easy circumstances, living in their own houses, which are not only well constructed, but show comfort, and, to a certain extent, even luxury.

The iron foundry in this town is owned by a German.

Some of the journeymen are paid by their employers by the piece, such as tailors, shoemakers, hatters, and saddlers, the others are generally paid by the month, and may, one with the other, gain more or less the following wages, viz., tailors, shoemakers, saddlers, 4$000 to 5$000 per day without board and lodging, or 8*s.* to 10*s.* sterling.

Bricklayers and carpenters 3$000 to 3$500 per day without board and lodging, or 6*s.* to 6*s.* 6*d.* sterling.

Blacksmiths, joiners, carriage builders, bakers, tinkers, and painters 2$000 to 3$200 per day without board and lodging, or 4*s.* to 6*s.* 5*d.* sterling.

Hatters 3$500 per day with board and lodging, or 6*s.* 6*d.* sterling.

As many of these trades come out here and are steady and sober, men will find employment at once, and are sure to get on well; and, if they are economical, will in a very few years have a small capital of their own, so as to enable them to start for their own account.

Domestic servants, female particularly, are very much wanted, and obtain good wages. A cook, for instance, 30$000 to 40$000 per month, or 3*l.* to 4*l.* sterling.

Chambermaids and servants for all work, according to their abilities, 24$000 to 30$000, or 2*l.* 8*s.* to 3*l.* a month.

As regards the purchase power of money as compared with England it may be said that, in our town, it is about equal as regards articles of first necessity, such as beef, potatoes, fish, and bread, which are very cheap. As to clothing there may be a difference of 30 per cent. in favour of England, since the material is all imported

from Europe or the United States, and we say that the whole of our industrial classes live and dress much better than in any other country.

In regard to matters connected with the preservation of health I have to observe that there is not a healthier climate in any country. In summer the thermometer but seldom rises over 96 degrees Fahrenheit, and in winter only when southerly winds prevail, the Pampero, it comes as low as the freezing point, and only in the open air on spots exposed to the wind.

There are not more than half-a-dozen of houses in town that have a fire-place or stove in the rooms. The above-mentioned Pampero but seldom lasts longer than three, and never longer than six days.

In regard to the quality of work executed in the different departments of labour, I have to observe that it is as good as anywhere else, particularly where the raw material is not imported, such as wood, for instance, of which our province has great abundance of the finest qualities, as shown by the samples sent this year to the Working Men's Exhibition in London.

As to food and the safest diet for a stranger, nothing is to be said, since he can obtain here the same animal and vegetable food as at home; only in summer certain fruits, such as water melons and unripe peaches, grapes, &c., ought to be avoided.

The beverages which will prove hurtful, and are needless, are spirits of all sorts, particularly the Cana or Caxaça rum, as a native product, and all imported bad and adulterated spirits, such as gin, brandy, and ordinary Portuguese and French wines.

For people who work hard and require a stronger drink than water, a good drinkable small beer is made in three breweries in town, and the wine made in the German Colony of San Leopoldo is a good and cheap beverage.

The clothing is more or less the same as used at home, only in summer it can be lighter.

The exertion is not so much as at home, since the working hours are not more than ten in summer and eight in winter.

As to personal conduct in regard to health-preserving power, experience teaches here, as anywhere else, that temperance in food, but more so in drink, is the best plan to be pursued.

As to the other points on which information is required, I have to observe :—

That all working men find good and healthy lodgings close to their work ; in fact, nearly all, with the exception of bricklayers, carpenters, or some that are married; board and lodge with their employers.

The lodgings are all good, well ventilated, drained, and free from all miasmatic dirt, and not at all overcrowded.

The quality of the work is, on an average, as good as anywhere else, and according to the price paid for it.

The workmen are generally competent in their several departments.

The artizans do take a pride in their work, some of which contend with any made in any part in Europe, at the same time they would not object to making an inferior article if ordered to do so.

Most of our workmen have sufficient sense of honour in executing a work well, and which can be depended upon.

The trustworthiness and skill of our workmen in any department of industry are certainly acknowledged and rewarded by higher wages, as is customary in all countries, since it is but too natural that the works of intelligent, skilful, and trustworthy artizans should obtain better prices than those made by men who, from one reason or other, do not pay the necessary attention to what they produce.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
	Reis.	£	
Labour .. per month	90$000	9	Equal to the same amount at home.
Provisions .. „	30$000	3	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The same as at home ; temperance in all things to be recommended, and particularly all spirits to be avoided.

Clothing.—In the winter months of June, July, and August, the same as at home; in the other months it may be much lighter and consequently cheaper. The cost of clothing for working men may be about 30 per cent. dearer than in England.

Lodging.—The lodgings of the working men in this city are much superior to those occupied by the same class at home, and a small family may have clean, ventilated lodgings, free from any miasmatic dirt, and close to their work, at the rate of about 24$000 to 30$000, or 2*l.* 8*s.* to 3*l.* per month.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The quality of work made in this city is equal to that made in any part of Europe, and some of our trades, such as hatters, shoemakers, tailors, and joiners, may compete with any in the greater cities in England, as well as on the Continent.

Finally, I can say that this city can be recommended to any persons who wish to emigrate from Europe, as one of the most cleanly and healthiest in the Brazils.

(Signed) MICHL. HEINSSEN.

SAO PAULO.

Consul Dundas to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 28.)

My Lord, *Santos, October* 29, 1870.

WITH reference to Mr. Otway's Circular of the 7th June last, calling for a Report on the condition of the industrial classes abroad, I have now the honour to inclose herewith, in accordance with the instructions therein contained, a Report I have drawn up on the working classes in this province. I regret much that my short residence here has not allowed me to report on this subject more from personal experience and observation, which, in a country where the population is so diverse and scattered, requires time.

The information I have the honour now to furnish your Lordship with is gathered partly from what I have been able to observe myself, and more from men having to do with the working classes, and who have resided in this country some years. It seems to me generally to be the opinion that this province as yet only offers a limited field for immigration, but the extension now going on of railways into the interior must shortly open out a wider sphere of labour for all classes.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CHAS. S. DUNDAS.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Dundas on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Province of São Paulo.

THE Province of São Paulo is one of the most expensive in Brazil as regards both living and labour, especially skilled labour, a fact which may be attributed to the high prices of all articles of importation, caused chiefly by the high custom dues, and the scarcity of good workmen. Consequently, good workmen can nearly always obtain good wages. This applies almost entirely to artizans and mechanics, there being little or

no demand for labourers, owing to the extensive employment of slaves in all out-door labour. Formerly, partly from pride caused by the use of slave labour, partly from natural indolence, the natives were unwilling to lend themselves to any labour, preferring to live among their small plantations of bananas, beans, and Indian corn, which gave them a sufficient supply of food without working for it. But of late years the introduction of railways, machinery, and foreign workmen, has drawn them out, and induced them to apply themselves to more industrial pursuits. Undoubtedly, the best workmen in the province are foreigners, principally Germans, French, Portuguese, and Italians. Of these the hardest working and most numerous, but most disorderly, are Portuguese, the Germans being the steadiest and most saving. With these workmen the natives cannot compete; the work executed by the latter is rough and unfinished in appearance, wanting, in short, the nicety and skill of trained men. Neither do they seem to show any pride in executing their work. I have been informed by men who have resided here several years, and who are capable of judging, that the Brazilian shows no capacity for becoming a skilled workman. He lacks one great qualification—that of applying himself assiduously to work. He is, besides, too independent and careless; independent of earning his living, and careless of pleasing his customer; working only when he chooses, and frequently allowing weeks to pass before executing an order given him. It is not uncommon for a man, when he has earned a certain amount, to leave off work until he has spent it; and yet the price paid for it is excessively high, compared with the quality and the prices paid for the same work in England. The average rates of wages vary but little, and are nearly the same for all classes of mechanics and artizans. The following are the average per day:—

	Currency.			Sterling.		
	Reis.		Reis.	*s.*		*s.*
Carpenters	2$500	to	3$500	5	to	6
Painters	2$500		3$500	5		6
Cabinet-makers	2$500		3$500	5		6
Masons	2$000		3$000	4		6
Smiths and other mechanics	3$000		4$000	6		8

Exchange at 24*d.* per milreis.

As his food costs him little, the native workman lives easily upon this, and can afford to be idle. They seem neither to care nor to think about comfort, and their homes too often present an uncomfortable and uncleanly appearance. Their food is coarse, consisting chiefly of "feijao," a species of black bean, which, in the interior, they cultivate for themselves, and pork or beef, with "farinha," a meal made from the root of the mandioca, and eaten raw with their food: Out of the towns beef is rarely to be obtained, and its deficiency is supplied by the "carne secca," or dried beef, which is stewed with the beans, and is often preferred by them to fresh beef. Fowls, too, form a great part of their diet. But the lowest classes depend almost entirely on the black bean and "farinha." The former grows easily, and without any more trouble than putting the seed into the ground; hence the little excitement to work. Little else but coffee, or water mixed with "cachaça," a spirit distilled from the sugar-cane, is drunk with their food; but a well-to-do workman will exchange the water and "cachaça" for a bottle of coarse wine. Working hours are generally ten a-day, from 6 o'clock A.M., until 6 o'clock P.M., but this is by no means the regular rule, for though sometimes less they are never more. At the Cotton Manufactory at the city of Itu, the only one at present working in the province, the wages are much lower, approximating more to the rates earned by the labouring classes. There the men get 2$000 a day, the women 1$000 and the children 500 reis (equal, in sterling, at 24*d.* per milreis, to 4*s.*, 2*s.*, and 1*s.*) This establishment manufactures coarse sheeting and clothing for negroes, and the working hours are the same as I have quoted above. The demand, I am informed, for the stuffs manufactured is more than they can turn out, and the complaint is that hands cannot be got to work. They go for a time, and, as soon as they have earned a small sum, they leave, and upon their earnings they will live a considerable time.

An English mechanic or artizan can certainly obtain higher wages than a native, provided he be a good one; though, whether there are any prejudices to be overcome among the Brazilians themselves against employing foreigners in preference to natives, seems to be doubtful. At present the new railway works are giving employ-

ment to large numbers of men, generally at from 2$000 to 3$000 a day (equal to 4*s.* and 6*s.* sterling), but the following are the average prices good foreign mechanics can obtain :—

Carpenters Bricklayers Painters	.. .. ..	From 3$000 to 4$000 per day (equal to 6*s.* and 8*s.*

And smiths, turners, and moulders, though for the two last there is as yet but little demand, from 4$000 to 5$000 a day, or from 8*s.* to 10*s.* This must be understood as applying to first-class workmen, but ordinary workmen could not hope to get as much. I have heard of Englishmen earning more, but only very exceptional cases, which cannot be considered as the rule. And there is no reason why English workmen should not get as high or higher wages than the native. The rate of wages I have quoted in currency cannot be taken to be worth, in purchase power, their equivalent quotation in sterling. For instance, I have stated 5$000 a day as worth, at 24*d.* exchange, 10*s.*; but, in purchase power, it is worth only about 5*s.*, the milreis going no further in this country than the shilling would at home. Thus, supposing a man here earning 5$000 a day, and the same man earned 3*s.* 6*d.* in England, he does not get the difference between 3*s.* 6*d.* and 10*s.*, but between 3*s.* 6*d.* and 5*s.*, for the cost of living and other articles of consumption reduces his 10*s.* here in value to 5*s.* at home. Yet I have been assured that a good workman, even if married, would save at least one-fourth of his wages. The cost of his keep (for he would not live in the same way as the native) would be from 2$000 to 2$250 a day, in proportion to the size of his family; or, in English money, from 4*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* a day, while the rent for house or lodging would range from 12$000 to 15$000 and 20$000 a month. If it be calculated that he earn, at the rate of 4$000 a day, 96$000 a month, which, following out the scale of 1$000 to the shilling, would equal 4*l.* 16*s.*, he ought, deducting for food and lodging and extras, to have a surplus, at the month's end, of at least from 30*s.* to 35*s.* I have taken the milreis at 24*d.* exchange, as being an easy rate, and the point to which exchange seems to be working up, and the most likely to settle at when the war in Europe

is over; and I have purposely reckoned the milreis according to its purchase value instead of its actual value, as being easier to demonstrate what is the *bonâ fide* worth of a man's wages here as compared with England. But it must be borne in mind that this calculation does not hold good with regard to his savings, which he could convert into sterling at the current rate of exchange; he then gets the real value of his money. Instead of reckoning 5$000 as 5*s.*, he gets 9*s.*, 10*s.*, or whatever exchange of the day gives him.

Against what may appear as high wages in the above quoted figures, the discomfort of living, so entirely different as it is from the home style, both as to food and dwelling, may be considered as a set-off. It may, too, be asked, if prices are so high, how a saving can be effected? The saving in reality is forced upon the workman. If he earns and lives upon 3*s.* 6*d.* at home, he earns 5*s.* here and lives for 3*s.* 6*d.*, so that he puts by the difference, though he gets less for his money and loses in comfort. He has not the same temptations or amusements in which to fritter away his money, and as he cannot obtain any small "luxuries," either from want of them or from the high prices, he must necessarily live as cheaply as possible, which is the Brazilian style of living.

Of the class answering to the labourers in England there is little or no information to be given, owing, as I have observed, to the almost exclusive employment of slaves; and though this province offers as yet no scope for men of that class, there is, however, a decided tendency to introduce free labour. As with mechanics and artizans so with this class, the introduction of railways was instrumental in drawing out labourers; but with the exception of those employed on the railways, the wages earned by them are a mere pittance. Men working on lines formed, and in course of formation, obtain rates varying from 2$000 to 2$500 and 3$000 a-day, or 4*s.*, 5*s.*, and 6*s.*; while for those who may be classed as the ordinary labourer, employed in hoeing, cutting timber, driving mules, &c., the rates vary from 320 reis to 1$000 a-day, from 8*d.* to 1*s.* sterling, just sufficient to maintain life. In Santos, São Paulo, and other towns in the province,

higher wages are obtainable by men who come under the denomination of labourers, such as carters and porters constantly employed in stores, and loading and unloading goods; but here again slave-labour is almost exclusively used. The former are men, generally, who have managed to save 100$000 or 200$000, when they buy a cart and mule, with which they transport cotton and coffee and other goods to different stores upon its arrival from the interior. These earn a decent livelihood, and increase their carts and mules according as they save money, and let them out to others. The latter class—porters—earn from 1$500 to 2$000 a-day. But in many instances, as soon as they have gained a few milreis they do nothing till hunger forces them again to work. They live more in hovels than houses, and subsist almost entirely on the black bean and farinha. In the interior, however, on one or two of the large coffee estates, whose owners have been trying free labour, are to be met with bodies of Germans and Portuguese, who, with their families, are employed in the cultivation of cotton and coffee, each family working so many hundreds or thousands of trees, according to the number of its members, and receiving, instead of wages, a share of the produce. They buy their food of their employer, or cultivate it for themselves on portions of land allotted them for the purpose. Their diet consists for the most part of the usual black bean, farinha, Indian corn, and "carne secca," dried beef. The first three articles they can produce for themselves, so that they have nearly all they require for their daily food. A good many of these families do well, and save money, but only by the utmost thrift and industry. Others who are idle gain nothing, and are bound to their employer by money they owe him, which has been advanced them. I believe that where this system has been tried it has given satisfaction, and is preferred to slave-labour; but it is of no advantage to the owner except in numbers, and of none to the immigrant, unless he arrives in the country under the protection of the planter.

The following scale shows the prices of most of the articles of food, which vary occasionally in town and in the interior:—

	Currency.		Sterling.						Weight.
			£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	
Beef	8 vintems ..		0	0	4		..		Per lb.
Pork	12 ,, ..		0	0	6		..		,,
Carne secca (dried beef) ..	12 ,, ..		0	0	6		..		,,
Feigao	6$000 to	8$000	0	12	0	to 0	16	0	Per bushel.
Farinha from mandioca ..	2$000	3$000	0	4	0	0	6	0	,,
Ditto, from Indian corn ..	2$000	3$000	0	4	0	0	6	0	,,
Potatoes	8$000	9$000	0	16	0	0	18	0	,,
Rice	9 000	10$000	0	18	0	1	0	0	,,
Maize	2$000	2$600	0	4	0	0	5	3	,,
Cheese, native	1$280	..	0	1	5½		..		Each.
Eggs	Rs. 280	Rs. 300	0	0	5¾	0	0	7¼	Per dozen.
Sugar	..		0	0	6	0	0	7	Per lb.
Coffee	..		0	0	6	0	0	7	,,
Wine, coarse	Rs. 800	1$000	0	1	7¼	0	2	0	Per bottle.
Cachaça	Rs. 500	..	0	1	0		..		Per quart.

Exchange at 24*d.*

I have not referred in this Report to the mechanics and artizans employed in the workshops of the São Paulo Railway, they being in the service of a company, and at a higher rate of wages than is the average in the province. Of the inferiority of the native, both in the quality and execution of his work, compared with foreigners, there is no doubt; but at the present time I do not think this province, from the limited amount of labour there is, offers many advantages to immigrants, though if a carpenter or blacksmith found himself in the country he would, probably, find work at good prices. Neither do I recommend it as a field for immigration to journeymen workmen. The class most likely to do well are master workmen, that is, men with a small amount of capital, who can start for themselves. Bricklayers would find the materials they would have to work with very much against them, being so entirely different to the home style of building. Perhaps, in course of time, as the extension of railways opens up the interior of the country, and develops trade and commerce, and in proportion as coffee and cotton planters introduce machinery on to their estates, the circle of regular work will increase and be enlarged. A few smiths or carpenters at the present time are the most likely to find work, and do well. The climate of the interior, away from the sea-coast, is in no way against a European, who can work in it fully as well as a native, without damage to health, provided he is abstemious and takes ordinary care. Too much of a meat diet is not in these climates beneficial to health, rendering a person, by too full a state of health,

more liable to take fevers; and the safest plan to follow with regard to diet I believe to be as close an adherence as possible to the diet of the natives, without changing entirely what one has been accustomed to. But the general dish of the country, and of the lower orders, almost their only food, is a mixture of beans, "carne secca," or beef and pork stewed together, and then eaten with the mandioca meal; this is very nutritious, but unpalateable at first to European taste. As to clothing, the immigrant should follow nearly the same rules as at home, merely modifying it according to the summer and winter, the latter season being cool enough to allow of his wearing warm materials, and in the summer he should be careful after nightfall, when the temperature is very treacherous. The dwelling-houses of the working classes are, for the most part, inferior to the cottages in England, though they would in some instances compare favourably with the crowded dwellings of the large English towns; for in a country like this, where there is room enough and to spare for all to live, there is little fear of insufficiency of ventilation. There are in almost every provincial town dwellings which present a wretched, filthy, and slovenly appearance, and where the drainage, if there be any, is only partial; but much is to be attributed to the habits of the people themselves; nevertheless, sufficiently comfortable houses may be had at the prices I have quoted. The worst parts are generally inhabited by the black population. It is, however, advisable to procure a house situated sufficiently high to escape the miasma which arises night and morning from the swamps; but I have also seen families living almost in the middle of swamps, who appeared healthy enough. Cleanliness in and around the house, abstemiousness and care, go far to ward off disease. In a town like this (Santos), as in many others along the sea-coast in low-lying places, no precautions can at all times of the year insure health, and there always must be the risk of malignant fevers during the hot months. But the climate of the interior is without doubt healthy, and when the railway extensions in the province are completed there must then be a demand for mechanics and artizans of all classes.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
Labour	From 2$000 to 4$000 per day for all classes.	From 2$500 to 3$000 for ordinary workmen From 3$000 to 5$000 per day for first class hands.	The purchase power of the milreis cannot be estimated at more than the English shilling.
Provisions ..	From 1$000 to 2$000 per day.	From 2$000 to 2$250 per day.	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—To avoid too great an indulgence in meat, and to adhere as much as possible to the diet of the country. Beef, pork, beans, mandioca meal, and rice, being the principal diet, with wine, coffee, and water mixed with "cachaça," distilled from sugar-cane.

Clothing.—Almost the same as in Europe; light materials, such as tweeds or flannels, or moleskins for summer wear, and warmer stuffs for winter. Flannel safer, more comfortable, and more economical than linen.

Lodging.—Sufficiently decent houses, at a rent of from 12$000 to 20$000 a-month. A single man would find lodging for from 12$000 to 15$000 a-month; but the cheapest and best way is for two or three to join together.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—Cannot compare with the work executed by British workmen; wants the finish and perfection of a skilled workman; a good workman can nearly always obtain good wages. Germans generally do well, because they can do a little of everything; but the British mechanic is good only in one particular point, in that in which he has been educated—in that branch he cannot be surpassed. But I have been assured that the Englishman too often "loses his head," and allows the native, whom he has perhaps taught a great deal, to outstrip him. Though in general the Brazilian is too indolent to exert himself, and seems rather not to care how a thing is done, so long as he gets it done at all. Money is not always an inducement to him, and professional pride seems to be wanting.

(Signed) CHAS. S. DUNDAS.

Santos, October 1870.

CHILE.

Mr. Thomson to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 29.)

My Lord, *Santiago, October* 14, 1870.

In conformity with the instruction contained in the Earl of Clarendon's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, I have the honour to submit to your Lordship the following observations as the result of the inquiries I have been enabled to make on the various points referred to in the above despatch. I regret, however, to have been unable to enter into the matter so fully as I would have desired to do from the circumstance of there being, comparatively with Valparaiso, few British subjects of the industrial classes resident at Santiago, and from my attention not having been previously directed to inquiries of this nature.

On the first of the three heads under which the Earl of Clarendon has classed the information required, I would observe that, in my opinion, the purchase power of money in this country, as compared with England, is probably somewhere about one-third of the latter. The price of labour, however, in this country being very high as compared with England, a much larger sum may be saved annually by mechanics here than in England. For example, a steady unmarried mechanic of frugal habits, receiving three and a half dollars daily, may, under the most favourable circumstances—that is, with constant employment and in the enjoyment of perfect health—save 8*l.* a month, or 96*l.* a year; whilst the same mechanic in England would probably be able to save only 2*l.* a month, or 24*l.* a year, making a difference in favour of Chile of 72*l.* a year.

For a married mechanic, however, with a small family (say two children), the case is different. He may gain something in this country from superior comfort in his home, as compared with the single man, but under the same most favourable circumstances above alluded to he may possibly save about 20*l.* a year, but in all probability he will find at the end of the year that he has barely saved himself from incurring debt. To the following points I think it would be right that the attention of mechanics in England, contemplating emigration to this

country, should be called :—1st. In his calculations of probable savings to bear in mind that in Chile, besides the 52 Sundays of the year, there are 15 Church holidays on which not only no work is done, but as those 67 days are specially devoted to public amusement and diversion by the native population, the temptation to young unmarried Englishmen to make them also days of dissipation is great. 2nd. No mechanic arriving in this country without a knowledge of Spanish can safely calculate on obtaining immediate employment, and if without surplus money on arrival the probability is that he will run into debt, which, once incurred here, is almost certain ruin. He ought, therefore, to endeavour to guard against this by coming here under contract, and, if possible, with a clause stipulating payment, after the period agreed upon, of a return passage to England. He will thus enter at once on his occupations, and by the time his period of contract has expired he will have acquired that colloquial knowledge of the language which is so essentially requisite not only in this but in all countries where English is not the spoken language.

On the second head, the power of preserving health. I would remark that in this respect Chile possesses greater advantages for a British emigrant than many other countries do. The climate is, on the whole, favourable. With the exception of small pox, which, however, is very virulent, Chile is almost free from epidemic diseases; and, with ordinary caution to protect the body from the direct rays of the sun, which produce brain fever, a British workman may follow his occupation, if not with the same comfort as at home, without danger to his constitution. The safe diet for a stranger here is the same as in England. He ought to be temperate both in eating and drinking, avoiding all excess in fruits, such as grapes, peaches, apricots, apples, pears, melons, &c., which are both abundant and cheap, and, when used moderately, wholesome. Wine of the country is cheap, and not unwholesome; but the grape cider, when not fresh made, is, like the aguardiente, or native spirit, most pernicious, and, when taken in excess, certain ruin to the constitution. The working hours ought not to exceed those customary in England, 57½ hours a week. Here it is the usual practice to work from sunrise to sunset all the year round, with an interval of three-quarters of an hour for breakfast, and two hours for dinner in summer and one

hour in winter. The stranger, however, ought to rest during the hot weather of summer and autumn from half-past 12 o'clock to 3 o'clock of the afternoon, when engaged on out-of-doors labour; otherwise the heat and consequent relaxation of the system may induce habits of intemperance in liquor and fruits. From miasmatic exhalations Chile, notwithstanding the high temperature which ranges in summer in the central and northern provinces, is, from the dryness and purity of the air, remarkably free; but diseases arising from the miasmatic dirt of the habitations of the native working classes are not only common but of a virulent type, and to this source is in a great measure to be attributed the excessive mortality among children of the working classes, which occurs in almost all the towns and cities of the Republic.

On the third head, the quality of the work executed by workmen in this country, and the other queries particularly noted in the Earl of Clarendon's despatch relating thereto, I would say that in this province there are few first-class workmen, and there is, therefore, an opening for a limited number; but the artizan of this country, as compared with the artizan at home, shows little concern for or interest in the work he executes beyond the amount of dollars it produces him.

The annexed Tables,—No. 1 showing the average amount of wages earned by the artizan and some of the industrial classes in this country, together with the approximate rate of wages of the same in England, and the hours of labour; No. 2 giving the approximate estimate of expenditure by the artizan and some of the industrial classes per month and per day for single men and for married men; and No. 3, showing the average prices of the principal articles of food used in this country by the artizan and industrial classes,—have been obligingly furnished to me by Mr. James Hull, locomotive superintendent of the Southern Line of Railway of Santiago; and, from the general intelligence of Mr. Hull, and his great experience in such matters both at home and in several other foreign countries, I am disposed to place much confidence in the accuracy of the data they contain.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WM. TAYLOUR THOMSON.

(No. 1.)—Average Amount of Wages earned by the Artizan and Industrial Classes in the Province of Santiago, Chile.

Trade or Profession.	Wages per Working Day.				Approximate Rate of Wages in Great Britain.	Hours of Labour.	
	Natives of Chile.		British Subjects, Germans, North Americans, &c.				
	Currency.	English Equivalent.	Currency.	English Equivalent.			
	D. c.	£ s. d.	D. c.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		
Bricklayers ... ... from	1 50	0 5 9	...	...	0 4 6	Sunrise to sunset. Half-hour for breakfast, and 2 hours to dinner in summer and 1 hour in winter.	
to	2 0	0 7 6			0 5 0		
Carpenters and joiners ... from	1 50	0 5 9	3 0	0 11 3	0 4 8	Ditto.	
to	2 0	0 7 6					
Carriage makers ... ... from	2 0	0 7 6	3 50	0 13 1	0 5 0	Ditto.	
to	2 50	0 9 4					
Blacksmiths ... ... from	2 0	0 7 6	3 0	0 11 3	0 4 8	Ditto. Some also from 6 to 6, with 1½ hours for meals.	
to	3 0	0 11 3	4 0	0 15 0	0 5 4		
Mechanics, fitters, &c. ... from	1 25	0 4 8	3 0	0 11 3	0 4 0	Ditto, ditto.	
to	2 50	0 9 4	4 25	0 15 11	0 5 0		
Engine-drivers ... ... from	2 0	0 7 6	3 50	0 13 1	0 5 6	Similar to those in Great Britain.	
to	2 50	0 9 4	4 0	0 15 11	0 7 6		
Painters ... ... from	2 0	0 7 6	...	...	...	Sunrise to sunset.	
to	3 0	0 11 3					
Tinsmiths and plumbers .... from	1 0	0 3 9	...	...	...	From 6 to 6 generally.	
to	2 25	0 8 5					
Bakers ... ... from	0 75	0 2 9	...	...	...	... ...	Together with a small room and board.
to	1 0	0 3 9					
Tailors ... ... from	0 80	0 3 0	...	...	...	Generally work by the piece in their dwelling-houses.	
to	1 50	0 5 9					
Shoemakers ... ... from	1 0	0 3 9	...	...	...	Ditto.	
to	2 0	0 7 6					
Servants, male, per month ... from	8 0	1 10 0	...	...	...		
to	10 0	1 17 6					
Ditto, female, ditto ... ... from	3 0	0 11 3	...	...	...		
to	6 0	1 2 6					
Agricultural labourers ... from	0 19	0 0 9	...	...	...	Sunrise to sunset	Together with rations, consisting of about 1 lb. of good bread for breakfast and beans for dinner and supper. A large class of labourers called "inquillinos" are also engaged by farmers, who allow them about 4 acres of land, with about 6d. per day and rations, during sowing and reaping seasons.
to	0 25	0 0 11					

(No. 2.)—Approximate Estimate of Expenditure by the Artizan and Industrial Classes per month in the Province of Santiago, Chile.

Single or Unmarried Men.

	British Subjects.		Natives of Chile.	
	Currency.	British Equivalent.	Currency.	British Equivalent.
	D. c.	£ s. d.	D. c.	£ s. d.
Boarding	16 0	3 0 0	13 0	2 8 9
Lodging	5 0	0 18 9	2 50	0 9 4½
Clothing and washing ..	9 0	1 13 9	6 0	1 2 6
Minor expenses	6 0	1 2 6	4 50	0 16 10½
	36 0	6 15 0	26 0	4 17 6
Average	4*s.* 6*d.* per day.		3*s.* 3*d.* per day.	

Married Men with Small Families (say 2 Children).

	British Subjects.		Natives of Chile.	
	Currency.	British Equivalent.	Currency.	British Equivalent.
	D. c.	£ s. d.	D. c.	£ s. d.
Food	30 0	5 12 6	20 0	3 15 0
House-rent	10 0	1 17 6	8 0	1 10 0
Clothing	20 0	3 15 0	14 0	2 12 6
Education of two children ..	10 0	1 17 6	2 0	0 7 6
General expenses ..	8 30	1 11 1½	6 0	1 2 6
Wood for cooking ..	2 70	0 10 1½	2 0	0 7 6
	81 0	15 3 9	52 0	9 15 0
Average	10*s.* 1½*d.* per day.		6*s.* 6*d.* per day.	

(No. 3.)—AVERAGE Prices of the principal Articles of Food, &c., used by the Artizan and Industrial Classes in the Province of Santiago, Chile.

Name of Article.	Chilian Currency.	British Equivalent.
Bread	10 cents per loaf of 3 lbs.	about 1½*d.* per lb.
Flour	3½ dollars per quintal	13*s.* per 100 lbs.
Potatoes	1 dollar 50 cents per fanega	3*s.* 4*d.* per 100 lbs.
Beef	12 to 15 cents per lb.	6*d.* to 7*d.* per lb.
Pork	ditto	ditto.
Charqui or dried beef ..	15 to 16 cents per lb.	7*d.* to 8½*d.* per lb.
Fowls	40 to 50 cents each	1*s.* 6*d.* to 1*s.* 10½*d.* each.
Eggs	6 for 12½ cents	1*s.* per dozen.
Sugar	15 to 18 cents per lb.	7*d.* to 8½*d.* per lb.
Cheese, native	15 cents per lb.	7*d.* per lb.
Graza or lard	15 to 17 cents per lb.	7*d.* to 8*d.* per lb.
Beans	2½ dollars per fanega	5*s.* per cwt.
Butter	50 cents per lb.	1*s.* 10½*d.* per lb.
Chacoli or native wine ..	2 to 3 dollars per arroba	2½*d.* to 3½*d.* per bottle.
Chica	ditto	ditto.
Ale, brewed in Chili ..	1 dollar per dozen bottles	3½*d.* per bottle.
Ditto, English, imported ..	4½ dollars per docena	1*s.* 5*d.* per bottle.
Aguadiente (spirit) of 20° ..	6 to 6½ dollars per arroba	7*d.* per bottle.

COQUIMBO.

Acting Consul Murray to Earl Granville.—(Received November 29.)

My Lord, *Coquimbo, October* 18, 1870.

In obedience to the instructions conveyed in the Circular despatch of the 7th June last I have the honour to transmit to your Lordship a Report on the condition of the industrial classes in this province kindly furnished to me by an intelligent English gentleman, the employer of a great number of both English and native artizans and workmen in his mines and smelting-works, &c.

I have, &c.
(Signed) JNO. B. MURRAY.

Inclosure.

Report by Acting Consul Murray on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Province of Coquimbo, Chile, as compared with England.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

This is difficult to fix, as it may vary within a distance of a few miles, but in general 15$000 may be said to represent 2*l.* sterling in England. There are no so-called English labourers in the province, the Chilean peons do all such work, whilst the English are mostly employed in mining, metallurgy, or engineering. There are very few English tailors, shoemakers, bakers, &c., and of these none are journeymen. There are no agriculturists, or only few English ones, the quantity of land under irrigation being very small.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

The province is one of the healthiest parts of the world; the food is good and wholesome, the houses are generally supplied to English workmen by their employers; and

though the miners have only sometimes huts to live in, they do not seem to suffer. Rain only falls once or twice a year, the climate is dry, and very little change is made in clothing during the year.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Almost all the skilled labour is done by Europeans, the English workmen bearing a high character as engineers, blacksmiths, carpenters, miners, &c., but none do labourers' work.

The province of Coquimbo does not offer any inducement to immigrants, as, though there are many English workmen, most of them are working under contracts or come out under contract. No English workman should come out on the chance of getting work; he might remain for months idle; there may now and then be a scarcity of a certain class of workmen, but in such cases the employers send to England or to other parts of Chile. The smelters are almost all from Swansea and the miners from Cornwall. In those two places will be found many workmen who know the Province of Coquimbo; in fact, there is a constant correspondence between those places, and any demand for labour would be immediately supplied.

Coquimbo is better known than Scotland in Cornwall and Swansea by the working classes.

Coquimbo, October 18, 1870.

VALPARAISO.

Consul Gollan to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 29.)

My Lord, *Valparaiso, October* 14, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Mr. Under-Secretary Otway's Circular despatch of June 7, inclosing copies of two Circular despatches addressed by the Earl of Clarendon to Her Majesty's Diplomatic Representatives abroad, for Reports on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries, and requesting such information as may be obtainable from Her Majesty's Consuls on the same subject.

The short time during which I have been resident here does not enable me to go into the question so thoroughly as it requires, and I presume further that the Report of Her Majesty's Chargé d'Affaires will include this Consular district; I therefore confine myself, in the few remarks which I have now the honour to lay before your Lordship, to the town of Valparaiso, and to the opportunities of remunerative employment therein offered to the intending emigrant.

Generally speaking, I do not think that any person would benefit his position much by coming to a place like this who did not possess a trade. There is, however, always a considerable demand for skilled labour, especially for engineers, machinists, blacksmiths, &c., and steady, competent men in these branches are almost certain to succeed and to save money. The annexed scale of wages will show how valuable such labour is here, but I do not think I exaggerate by saying that the purchase power of money in Valparaiso is not more than one half what it is in England.

	Per Day.							
	$		$		s.	d.		s. d.
Engineers	4	to	5	=	15	0	to	18 9
Machinists	3		4		11	3		15 0
Blacksmiths	3		4		11	3		15 0
Pattern makers ..	3		3½		11	3		13 0
Carpenters	2		3		7	6		11 3

With reference to the health part of the question, I would merely remark that it depends greatly on the

individual. I fear that drink is the besetting sin of many of the artizan class who come to this country, but to a man who is even moderately careful the climate throughout Chile is exceedingly good, and, as far as I can judge, it would not be difficult to obtain appropriate lodgings in Valparaiso.

Finally, I do not consider that this place offers any strong inducements for emigrants to come out *to seek* employment, for the inability to speak the language is so great a drawback in the beginning that they are apt to expend whatever little means they may possess, and very possibly fall into great destitution, before finding any opening in which to engage themselves; and as several of the employers of skilled labour have agents in England, the intending emigrant would find it to his advantage to engage himself before starting for a fixed time, as, if at the end of his contract he finds that he can better his position, he would be at liberty to employ himself as he thought best, and, on the other hand, if he were desirous of returning to England, and had properly fulfilled his contract, his employer would invariably furnish him with a passage.

I have, &c.

(Signed) ALEX. GOLLAN.

COLOMBIA.

Consul-General Bunch to Earl Granville.—(Received September 26.)

My Lord, *Bogotá, August* 4, 1870.

I HAVE had the honour to receive your Lordship's Circular despatch of the 7th of June, by which I am instructed to furnish your Lordship with certain particulars respecting the condition of the industrial classes in this Republic in addition to the information already conveyed in my reply to the Circular despatch from the Foreign Office of the 30th of April, 1869.

Although it is evident that for the reasons given in my despatch of the 24th of January last, any information on these subjects from a new and unsettled country like this Republic can be of little value to the English agricultural labourer, mechanic or artisan, I will nevertheless do the best that I can to reply to your Lordship's questions.

I must, however, begin by saying that my remarks only embrace a small portion of this vast territory. The climates which it contains are so varied, the productions so different, the rate of wages, mode of life, value of money and other conditions of existence so impossible of subjection to a fixed rule, that it would not be in my power to include them all in a single Report. I propose, therefore, to limit myself to the temperate region of the plain of Bogotá, together with such portions of the adjoining States of Boyaca and Santander as possess the same climate and where the manner of life is more or less the same. Respecting the Coast States Her Majesty's Consular Officers can speak with much more precision than I can.

I have the honour to subjoin a Table of the description transmitted in your Lordship's despatch now under consideration, into which I have introduced such particulars as I have been able to obtain. There is but little to add to it in the way of explanation, as the general

result of my observations is to be found in my despatch above alluded so.

There is really no field for European emigration to this country. There are, it is true, good and healthy climates amongst the mountains—there are rich soils, and life is moderately cheap. But the mountains are inaccessible, the distances great, the journeys expensive, and the Coast region which has to be passed through hot and unhealthy. The soils, though fertile, are not better than those of many other new and accessible countries. Life, although cheap, would not be very agreeable to an emigrant. In the first place he must learn a new language, in the next he must change almost all his habits. The natives of the country, although mild in their manners and outwardly polite, have still the traditional Spanish jealousy of foreigners. The rate of wages is very low and could not be raised, so that any advantage on the score of cheapness would be rendered nugatory as regards the power of saving—added to all this the frequent political disturbances form a great drawback to intending emigrants—particularly to those who propose to farm land, raise stock, &c. A party of soldiers will carry off a crop or drive away a herd of cattle or a drove of horses without compunction, on the plea of necessity, in spite of Treaties or Legations. It is quite true that in the case of a foreigner, the losses will be paid for (I speak of Colombia) honourably and certainly. But the owner may be ruined in the mean time, as there must be delay, sometimes extending over years. Such transactions do not involve cash payments: a receipt is generally given, and the onus of proving the loss, the value, and all details, falls on the aggrieved party.

I have a warm regard for Colombia and its people. Amongst the latter are to be found many fine qualities, and foreigners, as a rule, are happy and contented with them; there is perfect religious toleration and much freedom of thought and action, but I cannot conscientiously recommend the English emigrant of the working class, either peasant, mechanic, or artisan to settle here at present.

In talking over this question with Señor Zapata, the Colombian Foreign Secretary, his Excellency remarked that there was a fine and healthy region near Santa Marta on the slopes of the Sierra Nevada, close to the

sea, and possessing many advantages. I have requested Mr. Vice-Consul Stacey, whose intelligence and knowledge peculiarly fit him for the task, to turn his attention to this spot and to transmit to your Lordship a Report concerning it.

I have, &c.
(Signed) ROBERT BUNCH.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

		Currency.		Purchase Power.
		Local.	British.	
Labour—		Cents.	*s.* *d.*	
Agricultural	per diem	20	0 10	
Skilled	„	80	3 0	
Provisions—				
Meat	per lb.	8	0 4	As regards these articles, nearly equal here and in England.
Bread	„	5	0 2½	
Butter	„	30	1 3	
Rice	„	6	0 3	
Potatoes	„	2	0 1	
Salt	„	1	0 0½	
Chicha (the drink of the country)	per bottle	5	0 2½	
Native beer	„	10	0 5	
Sugar (of bad quality)	per lb.	20	0 10	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The articles above enumerated form the principal diet in the region described. It will be seen that bread, salt, potatoes, beer, and sugar are very much dearer than in England. The Indian peasan lives entirely on coarse bread and chicha. Tea, which is so necessary to an Englishman, is from 6*s.* to 8*s.* per pound.

Clothing.—Is that of the English spring and autumn. Being all imported, it is dearer than at home, and the quality inferior.

Lodging.—Tolerably cheap, but of a very inferior description. As a rule, not fit for an English workman to live in. Good houses in the towns are very dear. In the villages there are none for hire.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Is very indifferent, and, as explained in my despatch of January 24, 1870, the artizan takes but little pride in his work. Everything that can be imported is brought from abroad.

PANAMA.

Consul Wilthew to Earl Granville.—(*Received December* 15.)

My Lord, *Panamá, November* 17, 1870.

I HAVE to acknowledge the receipt of a Circular from the Foreign Department of June 7, transmitting to me copies of two Circular despatches which the Earl of Clarendon addressed to Her Majesty's Representatives abroad, relative to the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries, and I have the honour to inclose herewith to your Lordship, as instructed, a simple Report on the subject as far as regards this Consular district.

I have, &c.

(Signed) C. WILTHEW.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Wilthew on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Panamá.

THE demand for labour is not great, nor such as would present openings for the introduction of labour from without.

Though artizans' wages in this country may be considered high, the disadvantages under which those wages are earned are not compensated by their high rate.

1. The purchasing power of money is, on the whole, much the same as it is in England for all necessaries, except lodging.

There are no convenient houses for the labouring classes, the native labourer being content with mere shelter from sun and rain, whilst traders and merchants pay high prices to insure some comfort.

For lodging, the purchase power of money in this country may be estimated at one-half that of money in England.

2. The preservation of health is difficult to a European. Heat and moisture are excessive during a greater part of the year, and their effects are debilitating after a residence of some months.

Artizans, with great prudence and care, may contrive

to work in towns, but field work is quite impossible to those arriving from the north.

The food of the country is such as will not dissatisfy Europeans in general, meat and rice being always abundant, and flour easily procurable; but in drink most Europeans suffer great inconvenience. Those accustomed to stimulating beverages at home find nothing but strong alcoholic drinks in this country; these are hurtful in the extreme when often resorted to, and yet the desire to drink is greatly increased both by the heat and dampness of the climate. Indulgence has, however, proved fatal to so large a number of strangers that a statement of it would hardly be credited; deaths from fever being few when compared with those caused by the use of strong alcoholic drinks.

As to clothing, nothing else need be recommended than the necessity of having sufficient for a change when required, in order not to keep damp clothes (caused by perspiration) on the body. Flannel next the skin, and any light dress, will be found to answer all purposes.

It must be particularly borne in mind that northern people cannot undergo in tropical climates all the exertion which, in the north, is easily supported; the high price of labour ought not, therefore, ever tempt the newly arrived to overtax their working powers. Overwork under great heat, with no bracing weather to invigorate the exhausted body, undermines the constitution in an incredibly short time; and when this begins to take place, there is no other remedy than to leave the country.

By so many imprudent workmen being obliged to leave the country, lies the secret of constant high wages.

3. The quality of the work executed here is inferior.

The quantity of work to be done does not allow of that division of labour necessary to insure good workmanship. Artizans have, in many cases, to embrace several departments; thus, a stonemason is also bricklayer, plasterer, and slater; a carpenter is also a joiner and cabinet-maker. Such artizans, it follows, cannot take a pride in their work or stake their character on it; this is a great drawback to those who trust for success to the excellence of their work.

Panamá, November 17, 1870.

DENMARK.

Sir C. Wyke to Earl Granville.—(*Received December* 26.)

My Lord, *Copenhagen, December* 16, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to inclose herewith Mr. Strachey's reply to the questions put in the Circular of 7th June, from which you will perceive that the information required was given, as far as possible, in his Working Class Report of last winter.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CHARLES LENNOX WYKE.

Inclosure.

Further Report by Mr. Strachey on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Denmark.

MY Report of last winter seems to give sufficient explanations on the points named in the Circular of 7th June.

I am unable to realize the position of an English mechanic who should live here "as well as he lives in England." My Report shows that Danish artizans are contented with food and lodgings which would not suit our workmen until, at any rate, they had forgotten their national tastes and habits. It appears, too, that Danish artizans of the unskilled and lower skilled labour classes can do little more than subsist on the wages at present paid in Denmark. Compared with natives, foreigners of whatever social position must necessarily be at a great economical disadvantage. So that an English artizan of the classes named, who attempted to live in the English style on Danish wages, would be more likely to starve than save.

The higher skilled workman would be better circumstanced. Receiving 20*s.* a-week, and living, as I suppose he possibly might, on from 15*s.* to 16*s.* a-week, he would,

or could, save 4*s.* a-week. But the prospect of such a pittance could hardly tempt the highly-skilled English artizan to leave his own country.

I am unable to give a direct statement of the comparative "purchase-power" of money in Denmark and England, but the above explanations as to the possible margin of saving may, perhaps, meet the want named in the first paragraph of the Circular.

The climate of Denmark is, on the whole, so like that of Scotland, that no particular advice is called for on the point of "preserving health." The winter at Copenhagen is longer and colder than at Edinburgh; but I do not imagine that the difference is sufficient to necessitate any positive change in clothing or style of life. On the subject of lodgings, my Report of last winter gives full information.

On "quality of work" I have already spoken in my said Report, giving, perhaps, beyond the limits of my competency to express an opinion which some of my Danish friends have found too unfavourable to the national style of industrial execution. It has also been objected that I have understated the endurance and thoroughness of the Danish artizan. But all my remarks on these heads were originally suggested by good Danish authorities, and the grounds on which they have been criticized do not strike me as valid.

My Report has called forth several "replies" in the Danish press; but as none of my critics, except one, had taken the trouble to read it, or even to ascertain the precise nature of its contents, their strictures suggested no correcting by which I might profit.

On a careful review of the whole subject, it occurs to me to add that there is at present no opening in Denmark for English artizans. Here and there a foreign foreman, or workman of first-rate skill and experience, might find a place; but such opportunities rarely offer, and they are not to be picked up by mere random emigrants.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.	
	Local.	British.
Labour (all average rates)—	Rd. sk.	*s.* *d.*
Higher skilled	9 0	20 0
Lower ditto..	6 0	13 0
Unskilled	4 to 5 0	8*s.* 6*d.* to 10 6
Provisions .. per day	0 64	1 6

Purchase Power,

On 10*s.* 6*d.* a-week the unmarried operative may barely subsist; on 13*s.* a-week he may live tolerably and save 4*d.* a-week; on 1*l.* be in fair circumstances, and at the age of 50 or 60 may possibly have accumulated 50*l.* (see Report, pp. 507, 513).

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—No particular remarks necessary (see Report, page 513).

Clothing.—Climate may be compared with that of Scotland. The mean annual warmth of Copenhagen is 6½° Réaumur; that of Edinburgh, 7° Réaumur; summer means 14° and 11½°; winter means ½° and 2½°.

Lodging.—For poorer artizans, much as in England; for better class artizans, accommodation indifferent: no cottages, except a few built by subscription. (Report, pages 510 to 514.)

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—Danish work can rarely be compared with good French or English work. Very superior articles are occasionally produced for foreign Exhibitions, or on other special occasions; but average goods are deficient in finish, solidity, and, above all, in taste. (Report, pages 517 and 518.)

(Signed) G. STRACHEY.

STE. CROIX.

Acting Consul Lamb to Earl Granville.—(Received December 15.)

My Lord, *St. Thomas, October* 31, 1870.

In reply to Foreign Office Circular of the 7th June last, I have the honour to transmit herein the Report of Vice-Consul Dubois on the condition of the industrial classes in the Island of Ste. Croix.

His remarks equally apply to the subject in this place, with the difference that St. Thomas, not being a producing but a commercial island, the labouring classes, who are all negroes, are chiefly employed as porters in the warehouses and coal carriers at the coal depôts; the wages of porters are from 16*s.* to 1*l.* per week.

The coal labourers are paid in proportion to the work they perform, the average rate of wages being ½*d.* per each basket of coal, weighing about ninety pounds; of this class of labourers the greater number are women, and I have known instances in which these persons have earned as much as 12*s.* in one day, as remuneration for carrying 300 baskets, equal to twelve tons, all of which is borne on the head!

It must not be supposed from this statement that these people are fond of work; on the contrary, while capable of great physical exertion, the negro here is no exception to his reputation; when working by task they perform an almost incredible amount of bodily labour in one day with the view of earning sufficient means to maintain them in idleness for several days; and, in most cases, do not again seek for work until compelled by the necessity of obtaining more money.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WM. C. LAMB.

Inclosure.

Report by Vice-Consul Dubois on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Island of Ste. Croix.

I HAVE the honour to inclose my Report on the Circular dated Foreign Office, 7th June, 1870, received 11th July following.

The subject of immigration is one which has received much consideration in this island, where a large number of agricultural labourers and artizans are located from the neighbouring English islands, especially Barbados.

Sugar being the staple and only product of this island, the labourers are chiefly employed in its cultivation and manufacture.

The Labour Act of this island fixes the number of days' compulsory labour at five in each week, each day consisting of nine hours, from 7 A.M to 4 P.M., with two hours' intermission, Saturday and Sunday being at the disposal of the labourer; any additional hours' labour are paid for extra, according to agreement. In addition to the amount of money wages, provision-grounds and houses, with medical attendance to immigrants for the first two years after their arrival, are allowed to the labourers engaged, and hogs, poultry, and, in very many instances, horses are kept on the properties by parties resident thereon, artizans enjoying the same privileges as the field labourer, with the addition of 5 cents money wages per diem.

This island is well known for the salubrity of its climate; cholera has never appeared here, yellow fever seldom but in isolated cases, arising from excess and exposure, among the military on their first arrival, and small-pox never as an epidemic; and with proper care I consider the health of a new comer but little exposed to danger from the climate.

The supply of provisions, of which salted meats and fish and farinaceous articles are imported, are never so abundant as to cause any great fluctuation in prices, which may be considered high in comparison with the cost in the home markets. Indian meal and vegetables, chiefly the product of their own provision-ground, with

salted fish, form the chief food of the labouring classes, and may be considered as always within the reach of their means.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

Labour.	Local Currency.	c.	British Currency.
			Exchange, 500
1. Field labour, per diem	Money	15	
	Houses and provision grounds	15	
		30	*s.* *d.* 1 $2\frac{1}{2}$
2. Artizans .. „	Money	20	
	Houses and provision grounds	15	
		35	1 $4\frac{3}{4}$
3. Domestics .. „	Money and food ..	20	0 $9\frac{3}{4}$

The purchase power of money in all imported articles arising from high duties, merchants' commissions, &c., must be considered as 50 per cent. less than in England.

Provisions.—Imported provisions, such as wheat, flour, rye flour, Indian meal, salted beef, pork, fish, butter, &c., may generally be considered as ranging in value about 50 per cent. above the quotations in the home markets.

Native products, fresh meat alone excepted, are seldom sold by weight but by quantity, which is regulated by the supply. Fresh meat commands an average price of 16 piastres, or 8*d.* sterling per lb.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—A diet of bread and fresh vegetables, with a moderate admixture of meat and fish may be considered as the healthiest for a stranger on his arrival in this climate; all food should be plainly prepared and taken in moderation, avoiding all meats, vegetables, or fruits that are stale or unsound, as having a tendency to produce dysentery. Excess in stimulants of every kind is injurious and to be most carefully avoided.

Clothing.—In a climate which is so equal in temperature throughout the year, averaging about 80° Fahrenheit, but little change of clothing is required at different seasons; foreigners will find light woollen clothing most conducive to general health; and great physical exertion out of doors and in the sun injurious, producing excessive perspiration and rendering the party liable to fever if checked. Exposure to rain, damp, sudden draughts of cold air, and night dews, are to be carefully avoided.

Lodging.—On the plantations, where the labourers and artizans are principally employed, villages are erected at a central point for those engaged in labour. These houses are dry and comfortable, floored with boards, and roofs shingled, being kept in good repair by the owners, and forming airy and healthy residences, well ventilated, and free from miasma. In the towns no difficulty exists in obtaining comfortable rooms for rent at moderate rates. The houses, both in the towns and on the plantations, are under the inspection of the police, and I consider there is but little risk to health from these causes.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The labourers and artizans employed on the plantations and in the towns are generally competent in executing such work as is distinctly laid out for them by the foreman or master workman, but have little inventive or designing power, being paid according to a fixed rate of wages, little inducement exists for them to excel one another in the quality of their work; they, therefore, with but few exceptions, take little or no pride in the performance of it beyond what is necessary to secure them their wages. Under a system of fixed wages there can, of course, be no competition between the workmen, as their skill and trustworthiness exercise no influence whatever on their rate of remuneration; the mechanical skill of the island appears to be generally confined to the master workman, whether European or native.

(Signed) FRANCIS B. DUBOIS.

Ste. Croix, October 31, 1870.

EGYPT.

ALEXANDRIA.

Consul-General Stanton to Earl Granville.—(Received December 3.)

My Lord, *Cairo, November* 17, 1870.

In compliance with the instructions contained in Mr. Otway's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, I have the honour to submit the following remarks on the industrial classes in Egypt, together with Reports on this subject that have been drawn up by Mr. Consul Stanley and Dr. Mackie.

The Reports furnished by Mr. Consul Stanley and Dr. Mackie refer more especially to the foreign artizans residing in Alexandria, where they are far more numerous than in any other part of Egypt.

Manufacturing and other industries, save in a rude state, are little developed amongst the native inhabitants of Egypt, which may be said to be essentially an agricultural country, and the artizan and industrial classes bear but a small proportion to the tillers of the soil, and to the rest of the population. Reliable statistics are, unfortunately, wanting from which positive data can be procured on this subject, but I have been furnished by his Excellency the Minister of the Interior with a return of the numbers engaged in the different handicrafts throughout the country (Nubia and the Soudan not included), from which an approximate estimate of this proportion may be made, and from which it appears that the total number of native artizans in Egypt amounts only to about 55,000, or to little more than 1 per cent. of the population, which is estimated at about 5,000,000. It should, however, be remarked that this return probably includes only those paying taxes as artizans.

The system of esnafs or guilds has for centuries been established in Egypt, in every branch of native industry and the system is probably maintained from the facilities it affords in the collection of the capitation and other

personal taxes, as well as for the guarantee it is made to offer, for the due execution of works ordered by the Government.

Every esnaf is presided by a sheikh appointed by the Government, nominally upon the recommendation of the higher members of the guild; and a fee of 20*l.* sterling is paid by the sheikh on nomination, and the registration of his name in the Government offices. The sheikh is actually the ruler of his guild; he admits members, directs the manner in which contracts shall be carried out, fixes the wages of the craftsmen, and selects workmen to carry out the various works entrusted to him; he collects all taxes from his guild, and is responsible to the Government in all matters connected therewith.

The members of a guild are furnished, on admission, with certificates stating their proficiency and the rate of wages they are entitled to receive. They, are, as a rule, restricted to the particular craft or trade of the guild they have entered; or if, as is rarely the case, allowed to follow two callings, or even separate branches of the same calling, they are charged with an increased tax for each, unless they can arrange matters privately with the Sheikh. They are permitted to contract for work by the piece, but, if working by the day, are not authorized to demand a higher rate of wages than that set forth in their certificate.

The industrial population of Egypt, with the exception of weavers, dyers, and basket-makers, may be said to be confined to Cairo, Alexandria, and a few other large centres of population; and the following list of the crafts, with the numbers engaged in each, as specified in Sherif Pasha's return (though there are evidently omissions), may be worthy of note as an indication of the little development industries have received in this country.

Armourers	371
Blacksmiths	2,605
Brickmakers	434
Caulkers	910
Carpenters and sawyers	6,473
Charcoal-burners	320
Clockmakers	77
Coppersmiths	1,296
Dyers	5,109
Embroiderers	1,871

Engravers	321
Glaziers	86
Goldsmiths and jewellers	2,630
Lime-burners	2,482
Marble-cutters	285
Masons	4,113
Matmakers	1,463
Papermakers	1
Painters	686
Pipemakers	257
Plasterers	530
Plumbers	35
Potters	834
Ropemakers	19
Saddlers	770
Shoemakers	2,275
Sievemakers	598
Stone-cutters	1,404
Tailors	2,520
Tanners	971
Timmen	515
Tinsmiths	436
Upholsterers	582
Weavers	10,001

With regard to the quality of the work executed by native handicraftsmen, it cannot, as a rule, be said to be satisfactory, though exceptions undoubtedly exist in some departments, especially in embroidery, specimens of which are occasionally produced in Egypt of good workmanship, though inferior to European productions. This work catches the European eye, probably from its being applied to objects with which embroidery is not generally associated in Europe, and from the pattern usually being of an Eastern type; but the generality of work executed is sadly deficient in finish, is nearly always wanting in precision, and is frequently of the most clumsy character.

Considerable numbers of Europeans are engaged in Egypt in the building and other trades, and as mechanics in the service of the Government and private persons. In the Railway Department British mechanics are more numerous than those of other nations, and, I have reason to believe, are found the most trustworthy and efficient; but few English artizans have set up in business on their own account, possibly from their habits not assimilating so readily with local circumstances as those from the south of Europe. Greeks, Italians, and Maltese, are the most numerous but, of all people of

European origin, the Greeks are the most pliable and successful.

The Report drawn up by Mr. Stanley supplies the information called for as to wages, clothing, diet, &c., and contains sufficient details to show that British artizans, unless coming to Egypt with special engagements, or sober, careful, well-balanced, and intelligent men, in which latter case they would be sure of getting on in England, are not likely to better their condition by seeking speculative work in this country. I would, however, mention, as an exception to the above general conclusion, that tradesmen with a fair English connection to insure them the necessary credit, might find openings in Egypt offering prospects of fair remuneration and success; but it is an essential condition to this success that they be steady and sober, intemperance being fatal in such a climate.

I have, &c.

(Signed) EDWD. STANTON.

Inclosure.

Consul Stanley to Consul-General Stanton.

Sir, *Alexandria, November* 2, 1870.

WITH reference to the Foreign Office Circular of June 7, 1870, inclosed in your despatch to Mr. Acting Consul Calvert of the 14th September, I have the honour to transmit the accompanying answers to the questions touching—

1. The purchase-power of money here as compared with England;

2. The quality of work executed in the several departments of labour.

I have considered that the questions relative to diet, clothing, and sanitary state of lodgings here would be answered with more authority by Dr. Mackie, surgeon to this Consulate, whose practical experience, acquired during a residence of many years in this country, eminently qualifies him to give thoroughly trustworthy information. Dr. Mackie will, therefore, send you a separate Report on these subjects.

1. English mechanics and artizans are employed

here, with few exceptions, exclusively as engineers to steam-ships, engine-drivers on railways, engineers in charge of machinery of all descriptions, and as platelayers and fitters. They get high wages, for instance, engineers to steam-ships and cotton-pressing and gimning factories receive from 20*l.* to 30*l.* a month; engine-drivers from 18*l.* to 25*l.*; and platelayers from 17*l.* to 20*l.* per month. These, with the exception of engineers to steam-ships have lodgings provided for them.

Fitters receive from 6*s.* to 10*s.* per day.

French and German engineers receive less. Egyptian drivers on the Government railways receive from 8*l.* to 10*l.* per month.

Egyptian boys and girls under 15, employed in cotton gimning factories, can be obtained in any numbers in the interior for 5*d.* per day, working from four in the morning till sunset, with an intermission of one hour at noon. Their work is not arduous, being merely keeping the gins filled with cotton.

Egyptian men in these factories receive 1*s.* per day. Egyptian firemen and foremen receive 1*s.* 6*d.* per day. The factories work day and night, and the men receive 10*d.* extra for night work. Boys and girls are not employed after sunset. Very few men are employed during the day, children being fully equal to the greater part of the work required.

In the cotton-pressing establishments few children are employed, and the men actually employed in pressing are paid by the job. The following is the material of the press which, perhaps, daily turns out the greatest number of bales :—

	£	*s.*	*d.*	
A chief engineer (English)	25	0	0	per month.
A 2nd „ „	8	0	0	„
A European carpenter (Maltese) ..	7	0	0	„
1 Fireman	6	0	0	„
1 Headman	4	0	0	„
2 Water and coal carriers	3	4	0	„
8 Basket carriers	0	1	2	per day.
45 Women cleaning cotton	0	0	8	„
20 Men cleaning and carrying cotton ..	0	1	2	„
12 Men actually employed pressing.				

This pressing machine turns out daily 200 bales of 730 lbs. each, and for each bale about 3*d.* is paid. This gives to each man a daily earnings of about 4*s.* 2*d.*

There are in Alexandria six steam cotton-pressing factories, containing nine presses. In the interior there are two pressing factories and about 150 gimning factories, but of these only about 60 are at work.

These factories were mostly built at the beginning of the American War, since the conclusion of which there has not been sufficient trade to keep one-half of them working. In order to avoid excessive competition a Committee is formed annually in each district, who decide which factories shall work. Those which are excluded receive compensation derived from the profits of the others.

Besides the cotton-factories, the Viceroy has in Upper Egypt many sugar manufactories, which give employ to a large number of Egyptians, and having each one or more European engineers.

Foreman carpenters and blacksmiths, generally Maltese, are paid from 6*s.* to 8*s.* per day. Ordinary carpenters 5s. to 6*s.* A master carpenter or blacksmith charges 7*s.* per man per day when sent out on job work.

Greeks who are inferior workmen receive from 3*s.* to 5*s.* per day, but Corfiotes, who learned their trade during the British Protectorate of Corfu, get the highest wages of all, viz., 6*s.*

Egyptian workmen about 2*s.* per day, but they are rarely employed in European workshops, their work being of an inferior quality.

Foremen masons, generally Maltese, Italians, or French, receive from 6*s.* to 8*s.* per day. Ordinary workmen, generally Neapolitans, Italians from Calabria, Greeks, or Egyptians, from 3*s.* to 5*s.* per day.

Ordinary unskilled day labourers are mostly Egyptians. There are also a few Calabrians who can stand the heat of the sun better than other Europeans. These receive from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* per day. When Egyptians are employed by the day, it is usual to employ boys and girls of from 12 to 18, who receive from 10*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* per day. When men are employed it is usual to engage them by the job. A good Egyptian labourer will excavate 3 cubic yards per day, for which he will receive about 2*s.* 6*d.*

Europeans are also employed occasionally, quarrying and digging for stones for building purposes. Maltese receive 3*s.* 4*d.*, Greeks 3*s.*, and Egyptians 1*s.* 8*d.* per

day. This work also is best done by the job, and 1,000 suitable stones, equal to 6 cubic yards, ought to cost from 8*s*. to 10*s*. on the spot, increasing according to the distance to be carried. Egyptians do this work and ordinary ground labour as well, if not better, than Europeans, and the latter are only paid more owing to the difficulty at certain times in procuring Egyptians. This rarely occurs, and it may be said that Egyptians monopolize all the unskilled out-door labour.

A shopman receives from 6*s*. to 8*s*. per day.

As to provisions, beef and mutton are about the same price per pound as in England. The beef is good, but the Syrian mutton imported and generally used in Alexandria is very inferior to European mutton. Egyptian mutton, more used in the interior, is better than the Syrian, but also inferior to European mutton. English mutton is killed in small quantities weekly, at 1*s*. per pound. Bread is one-third dearer than in England. Potatoes, cauliflowers, cabbages, peas, beans, and vegetables usually consumed in England, are dearer here, but tomatoes, "bamias" ("Hibiscus esculentus"), the egg-plant, vegetable-marrow, and yams, are good and cheap.

Apples and pears cost nearly twice as much as in England, and the smaller fruit, such as cherries, currants, and strawberries, are rare and expensive, but there is an abundance of excellent and wholesome bananas, delicious figs, besides apricots, melons, grapes, and oranges. These are much cheaper than in England.

Cow's milk costs twice as much as in England. Buffalo's and goat's milk, much used, is good and cheaper than cow's milk.

French, Greek, and Italian wines can be got fair and cheap, and are more suitable to the health than beer or strong wines. There is abundance of bad, harmful spirit.

English stores generally can be bought at 35 per cent. dearer than in England. When imported direct by the user, about 20 per cent. The wear and tear of clothes, owing to the sun and dust, is greater than in England, and articles of clothing are dear.

Rent is high. A mechanic, who in England would pay 12*l*. a-year for a suitable house, would here pay 36*l*. The English employed here being of the class I

have mentioned, generally have lodgings provided for them, except the engineers on Government steamers. These men, who receive from 25*l.* to 30*l.* a-month, 28*l.* being the average, and have to find their own food on board, pay from 25*l.* to 36*l.* a-year for house-rent for their families. Unmarried engineers to Government steamers usually contract for their food on shore at about 7*l.* per month. A few club together, and the contract price is considerably less per man.

2nd. The quality of work is generally inferior. English mechanics are, on the whole, the most thorough and conscientious in their work; but they are employed, with few exceptions, exclusively on railway works, and as engine-drivers, engineers to steam-ships, and to machinery of all descriptions, and as fitters. French, German, and Italian engineers, are here considered inferior to the English.

The word "engineer" can hardly be taken in the same sense as in England; for instance, the men who, as engineers to factories, receive here 25*l.* per month, would not command more than from 8*l.* to 10*l.* at any of the large engineering firms in England, such as Penn's or Maudslay's; and the man who there would receive 20*l.* per month would find here no suitable corresponding employ, except possibly under Government.

The Egyptians are inferior workmen in every industry, except perhaps as masons, in which industry they are much helped by the excellent material of the country. They are also fair rough shoemakers and tinsmiths, and carders of cotton for mattresses and divans. They do their work conscientiously, and take a certain pride in it, firmly believing that no work can surpass theirs.

Maltese are generally fair workmen in every branch of industry, and certainly the best here. Germans, of whom there are few, rank next. French, Italians, and Greeks are apt to scamp their work.

It is evident, from Maltese being paid higher than others, and from their work being certainly generally the best, that the quality of work in some respects regulates the price of wages, but not in the same degree as in England. This is owing to the general want of excellence in the work, also to the employers not being so discriminating, and to the fact that the European

employers of labour remaining, or hoping only to remain, a short time in the country, do not in general pay much regard to solidity of work. The want of a good stock of seasoned material also operates to the disadvantage of carpenters.

Engineering work is an exception, as, for the employers to make fortunes rapidly, it is essential that the machinery, which comes originally from England, and to a small extent from France, be of good quality, and that there be workmen capable of keeping it in good working order. These men, nearly all English, receive high wages; but their tenure of work is uncertain, notwithstanding any contracts for service they may have entered into, inasmuch as in a bad cotton year, or occasionally when the supply exceeds the demand, the employers who have made a large outlay are ruined, the factories closed, and the men thrown out of employ. Much distress amongst the English ensues, the discretion allowed to English Consuls to give pecuniary assistance to such men having been withdrawn.

Lately an English Benevolent Society has been established here, which has relieved much distress; but the funds are necessarily limited, and unequal to the pressure of a bad year. Maltese are relieved by a liberal grant of the Malta Government; and distressed people of all nations, except English, are relieved by their respective Governments, being supported out of public funds when temporarily out of employ; being sent to hospital when sick, and a passage home being provided for them when utterly unable to procure work here.

I cannot recommend any English mechanic to come here, unless certain of employment, or possessed of funds to last him some months.

The shops are good, but workmen generally inferior. Anything can be bought at about 30 per cent. higher than in Europe; but it is difficult to get any article well repaired. There is no good engineer, optician, gunsmith, or farmer in Alexandria; and I am of opinion there is a good opening for any of these.

As a summary to the preceding remarks on the purchase-power of money for labour or provisions, it may be concluded that skilled labour costs twice as much as in England, rent nearly three times as much, necessary provisions a very little higher than in England,

so that a steady mechanic can certainly save more here than he would in England, and in the large towns would live as well; and, indeed, would have many luxuries, cheap wholesome fruit for instance, to which he was unaccustomed in England.

In the interior he would not live so well, but much cheaper. This saving is, however, dependent on his and his family having good health. Most of the ladies of the richer European classes go to Europe during the hot months, and the men every other year. Those who have time and money to dispose of, every year. This would entail too much expense on the working classes; and the greater risk of illness, with its attendant loss of employ, must be taken into most serious consideration by any workman before deciding to come out. Should he come under contract, a clause should be inserted, defining the wages he would get when ill, and stipulating that he be sent home at his employer's expense if absolutely incapable of work through illness. This might in all cases be made certain, by a sufficient sum being deposited in the Consulate. It would especially guard against difficulty, were his employer an Egyptian. In the case of his employer being the Government, or a European, it would be unnecessary.

I have, &c.

(Signed) G. E. STANLEY.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

Labour.

	Currency.			Purchase Power in England.
	Current Piastres. 195=£1.	English Money.		
		£ s. d.		£ s.
English engineer to factory, with house . per month	4,875 0	25 0 0		10 0
2nd class ditto, ditto .. .. „	3,510 0	18 0 0		8 0
English engineer on Government steamer, without board .. .. .. „	5,460 0	28 0 0		
English driver, with house .. .. „	4,875 0	25 0 0		10 0
Egyptian ditto, ditto .. .. „	1,950 0	10 0 0		
English platelayer, ditto .. .. „	3,510 0	18 0 0		
English servant in gentleman's house .. „	975 0	5 0 0		3 0
Egyptian ditto (good, clean, and honest). „	385 0	3 0 0		
Ditto ditto, with mechanic .. .. „	390 0	2 0 0		1 0
Ditto cook, 1st class .. .. „	585 0	3 0 0		
Ditto ditto, 2nd class .. .. „	390 0	2 0 0		
Fitters .. .. per day	68 10	0 7 0		
Foremen, carpenters and blacksmiths .. „	68 10	0 7 0		
Ordinary ditto .. .. .. „	53 25	0 5 6		
Foremen, masons .. .. .. „	68 10	0 7 0		
Ordinary ditto .. .. .. „	39 4	0 4 0		
Egyptian ditto .. .. .. „	34 5	0 3 6		
Ordinary unskilled labourers, above 18. . „	12 25	0 1 6		2 0
Ditto ditto, from 16 to 18 .. .. „	9 30	0 1 0		
Ditto ditto, under 16 .. .. „	8 6	0 0 10		
Egyptian men can get by the job .. „	24 15	0 2 6		
N.B.—Europeans cannot work much in the sun.				
Maltese quarrymen (employed rarely) .. „	32 20	0 3 4		
Greek ditto .. .. .. „	29 10	0 3 0		
Egyptian ditto .. .. .. „	16 10	0 1 8		
A good Egyptian quarryman can make by job .. .. .. „	29 10	0 3 0		
Small boys and girls in cotton factories . „	4 0	0 0 5		
Egyptian men, ditto .. .. „	9 30	0 1 0		

PROVISIONS.

	Currency.		Purchase Power in England.
	Current Piastres. 195=£1.	English Money.	
		s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*
Beef .. .. .. per lb.	7 28	0 $9\frac{1}{2}$	0 $9\frac{1}{2}$
Mutton .. .. ,,	6 36	0 $8\frac{1}{2}$	0 $8\frac{1}{2}$
Turkeys .. .. each	97 20	10 0	15 0
Chickens .. .. ,,	8 38	0 11	2 0
Fish .. .. .. per lb.	9 30	1 0	0 7
Eggs .. .. per doz.	5 27	0 7	0 10
Bread .. per quartern loaf	9 30	1 0	0 9
Butter (Cork) .. .. per lb.	14 25	1 6	1 3
Egyptian butter (good for cooking) .. .. ,,	12 7	1 3	
Milk.. .. .. per pint	4 35	0 6	0 3
Tea .. .. .. per lb.	39 0	4 0	3 6
Coffee .. .. .. ,,	8 38	0 11	1 4
Cheese .. .. ,,	12 7	1 3	1 0
Potatoes .. .. ,,	1 8	0 $1\frac{1}{2}$	0 1
Cabbage .. .. each	1 24	0 2	0 1
Cauliflower .. .. ,,	2 17	0 3	0 2
Peas.. .. .. per lb.	2 32	0 $3\frac{1}{2}$	0 $1\frac{1}{2}$
Beans .. .. ,,	1 25	0 2	0 1
French beans .. .. ,,	2 0	0 $2\frac{1}{2}$	0 $1\frac{1}{2}$
Turnips .. .. ,,	1 8	0 $1\frac{1}{2}$	0 1
Rice.. .. .. ,,	2 17	0 3	0 $1\frac{1}{2}$
Lettuce .. .. each	0 24	0 $0\frac{3}{4}$	0 $0\frac{1}{2}$
Tomatoes .. .. per lb.	1 8	0 $1\frac{1}{2}$	
Bamias .. .. ,,	2 17	0 3	
Badangan (egg plant) .. ,,	2 9	0 $2\frac{3}{4}$	
Vegetable marrow .. ,,	2 17	0 3	
Yams .. .. ,,	1 8	0 $1\frac{1}{2}$	
Apples .. .. ,,	2 32	0 $3\frac{1}{2}$	0 $1\frac{1}{2}$
Pears .. .. ,,	3 0	0 $3\frac{3}{4}$	0 $2\frac{1}{2}$
Figs .. .. .. ,,	0 32	0 1	
Apricots .. .. ,,	4 0	0 5	
Pomegranates .. .. ,,	1 24	0 2	
Grapes .. .. ,,	1 24	0 2	
Melons (water) .. each	6 0	0 7	
Bananas .. .. per lb.	6 16	0 $7\frac{1}{2}$	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

(*A Summary of the Report of Dr. Mackie, Surgeon to Her Majesty's Consulate.*)

Diet.—Simple, well-cooked food, as near an ordinary light English diet as possible, with only the moderate use

of malt liquors, or the lighter Continental wines. Entire abstinence from spirits.

Clothing.—Same as in England, but of lighter texture. Flannel always to be worn next the skin. A muslin turban round the hat advisable.

Lodging.—Good healthy lodgings difficult to find in the towns, and, as a rule, not near the work, except for foremen, who are often lodged by the employer near the work. The health of the town generally has been lately improved by extensive drainage works.

III.—*General Summary of Remarks.*

Quality of work is generally inferior. Wages high. Provisions slightly higher than in England, but not in equal proportion to the wages, so that a steady mechanic can save more here than in England.

Climate in summer hot, in autumn especially trying. Most people find it advisable to go to Europe occasionally. Spirits or strong wines to be avoided. Temperate workmen keep their health well. The intemperate die. The climate from November to April is delicious.

Inclosure 2.

Dr. Mackie to Consul-General Stanton.

Sir, *Alexandria, September* 25, 1870.

In reply to your inquiries regarding the state of the industrial classes in this country, for the information of emigrants, I beg to submit the following as the result of ten years' experience in extensive medical practice in Egypt and a long and intimate acquaintance with the class of artizans here:—

The artizans here, as a rule, observe pretty nearly the same diet as in England, less richly cooked and less in amount, especially of animal food, but the nature of the diet nearly the same, and this, I think, is in a general way as good a diet as any for Englishmen in this country; a mixed animal and farinaceous diet with a moderate amount of green vegetables, not too rich, and well cooked. The quantity of animal food ought to be reduced during the hot weather. Salads and fruits may

be eaten in moderation, care being taken that the latter are thoroughly ripe and that they are not indulged in to excess in the hot weather, as diarrhœa and dysentery are likely to be caused thereby.

Beverages.—The water, if well filtered and kept in proper vessels in a cool place, is excellent, except sometimes at very low Nile, and even then with proper care it may be used with safety.

The only beverage I recommend for artizans is the ordinary light wines; beer may be used at meals in winter; it is better, however, to avoid it in summer. All spirituous beverages are needless and hurtful.

Clothing may be of the same material as that used in England, but of a much lighter texture. Woollen under-clothing should always be worn; this, I think, is of great importance, as artizans are so much exposed to profuse perspiration and chills.

No artizan here can do the same amount of hard work nor undergo the same fatigue as in England; if he attempts it he will soon fall sick of diseased liver, low fever, or sunstroke, if exposed. Great fatigue and exhaustion ought to be avoided, and no artizan should risk injuring his health for the sake of gaining a little more money by doing extraordinary work.

It is a most difficult thing, as a rule, for a workingman to find lodgings near his work, such as an English artizan could venture to live in. In the villages in the interior the artizans superintending cotton factories or machinery of any sort, as steam pumps, &c., are provided with houses by their employers. If the employer is a man accustomed a little to European society he may provide, and does generally provide, a comfortable enough house. If he is a native, however wealthy, the house is generally a most miserable, unfurnished, unhealthy hovel. I have known first-class English mechanics arrive to take charge of cotton factories in the interior, entitled by their contract to be provided with a good house, and, to their surprise and disappointment, on arrival at their destination have found the house to be a miserable mud hovel, little better than the ordinary Arab hut, and perhaps much more unhealthy, swarming with all sorts of insects, surrounded by all sorts of filth and bad smells.

The house accommodation for artizans is miserably deficient. Those who are provided with houses, such as

they are, are only the principal responsible mechanics in charge of the factories. Any other artizans who choose to go to the interior in hopes of finding employment at jobbing have to lodge themselves as they best can; and for these decent healthy accommodation does not exist in the country. In the large towns, such as Cairo and Alexandria, many of the large works are at a long distance from town; but the employés have to find lodgings in town, and the most trying part of their labour is the fatigue of going to and returning from their work, especially in the burning heat of summer, and many of them suffer from it. For the price that an ordinary artizan is able to pay for lodgings it is all but impossible to find dwelling rooms ventilated, premises drained free from miasmatic dirt, over-crowding, and air poisoning. Although the rate of wages he receives may seem to strangers to be high, the rate for board and lodgings is also high, out of proportion to his wages; the consequence is, that he has to take the cheapest place he can find, which, of course, is in the filthiest and most unhealthy parts of the town.

The only class of artizans regularly provided with houses is the European mechanics under yearly contracts in the service of the Egyptian Railway Administration. A certain number of them are provided by contract with houses or lodgings close to the works, and although the houses are built apparently almost with a view to discomfort, being utterly unsuitable for a hot climate, they are good and healthy.

The risks to the health of an English artizan's family in Egypt are very great indeed, so much so that many of of them prefer keeping their families in England. Children of all classes of English are reared here with difficulty, especially during their infancy, and many English mothers are unable to nurse, and have to supply native wetnurses, whose wages are so high that they are not within reach of ordinary artizans, who are compelled to resort to artificial feeding, upon which the mortality is very great.

For those in the interior of the country, far from any of the large towns, it is difficult to procure the necessary food, and almost all the villages in the interior being peopled almost entirely by the peasantry or "fellaheen," who live principally upon vegetables, oil, and fruit, with

very coarse cheese and extremely bad bread. Beef is not always to be had in most of the villages, mutton is often very scarce and very bad, so that unless an English artizan can afford the expense of ordering the necessaries of life from Alexandria or Cairo the diet of his family must be of the coarsest kind, and almost the same thing day after day. In case of sickness they are very badly off, being often at a distance of ten, fifteen, or twenty miles from medical assistance, which, in most cases, is not of a high order, the doctor being often an Arab barber, who practises the art of cupping, leeching, and bleeding. In cases of serious illness in their families the English artizans generally go to Cairo or Alexandria to be near assistance, but as this entails great trouble, as they may be twenty miles from a railway station, and great expense for travelling, hotel expenses, nursing and medical expenses when they arrive. They often postpone their departure till it is too late, and, perhaps, would look too alarming. At Alexandria there is now a good hospital, of which many of the English avail themselves; and as the expense is trifling compared with hotel expenses, they do not hesitate so much to leave their homes to seek assistance, knowing that they can obtain it at a rate within their means. The majority of hotels and boarding-houses are expensive and miserable places for all classes of invalids.

From reports sent me by request from several superintending first-class mechanics in Government service and service of private individuals, I learn that the work done by English artizans is, as a rule, good; but that the spirit of emulation amongst them to do good work is not what it ought to be, but is greatest in the service of private individuals. In the Government service it is stated that bad work is the rule, but this refers to the artizans in general, the mass of whom is not English, but Maltese, Greeks, French, Italians, &c., who work at a very cheap rate and are as much appreciated as their fellow English workman, who may be a first-rate hand, but he becomes callous, seeing that his first-class work brings him no more credit and little more pay than his fellows of inferior capacity; and ordinary working English artizans are, as a rule, competent as workmen in their several departments, but as they are often employed here in positions for which they require more technical

knowledge than they usually acquire in England, they often fail when they have to direct the work of others.

As a rule, first-class English artizans, when well treated, properly paid and appreciated, take a great pride in their work, and to their utmost put their character into it; but good work is so seldom appreciated if work of any sort can be had cheap that there is not sufficient encouragement given them, and after a time they become careless.

The skill and trustworthiness of the workman exercises very little influence on the rate of wages; that with private individuals, employers of labour, depends so much upon circumstances outside the influence of the workman; such as the price of cotton in America, quantity sown here, &c., that the artizan is not always paid according to his merit; and in the service of the Egyptian Government, which employs by far the largest number of English artizans, the great object under any circumstances is to get them cheap, although an English will, as a rule, receive wages at a little higher figure than any other European artizan. Egypt is not a country for emigrants to resort to. Only first-class English artizans ought to come here, and these only under contracts made in England before leaving. None ought to come on speculation. Those who come out ought to be good hands, intelligent, industrious, and sober. The vice of English artizans in this country is intemperance; that, all employers and all superintending mechanics complain badly of. Artizans who come out here on speculation, and find no employment on arrival, almost without exception give themselves up so much to habits of intemperance that they soon are affected with some of the fevers or other diseases of the country, have to be picked off the streets, ill, sent to the hospital, and, if they recover, sent home by the English Benevolent Society or by the Consulate as indigent British subjects, to save them from starving or dying on the streets. Others, again, come out with apparently good contracts, not knowing what the country is, find their employment is somewhere at a long distance in the interior with only Arabs there, a word of whose language they cannot speak properly, no European but themselves, an uncomfortable hut for a house, bad food, no society. The consequence is that they take to drinking, and I believe that

many men who, under other circumstances, would have remained sober and temperate, have thus commenced habits of intemperance and so ruined their health and constitution that they have been obliged to give up probably very good pay, and leave the country.

I should recommend all those who come out under contract to see that their contracts are well drawn up without ambiguity, as it is too often attempted in this country by the employers to find flaws in contracts if it is to their interest, or they think it is their interest to break them. If the English artizan has his faults the employers have theirs, and these are many. If possible, it should be an article of contract that the artizan should have his passage paid home in case of having to leave from sickness, as no class of people is more exposed to serious sickness than artizans living in the interior. For those coming for employment with any department of the Egyptian Government service the contract ought to be most explicit, as they will find they will have to encounter all sorts of opposition, intrigue, and caprice, which even a good man will require an explicit contract to enable him to contend against.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. MACKIE.

FRANCE.

ALGERIA.

Consul-General Playfair to Earl Granville.—(*Received July* 27.)

My Lord, *Algiers, July* 22, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Lord Clarendon's despatch of the 7th June last, calling on me to furnish a Report on the condition of the industrial classes in Algeria.

As this is essentially an agricultural Colony, my remarks will mainly refer to agricultural labourers. Manufactures are yet in their infancy, and though extensive engineering works are being conducted throughout the Colony, these give occupation to few except the common labourer, and members of the various building crafts.

Since 1845, the wages of European labourers have diminished one-tenth, while those of the natives have increased one-third.

This apparently abnormal condition of the labour market is owing, in the first case, to the augmentation of the European population; and, in the second, to the development of cultivation, and to the salutary example which the Europeans have afforded to the Kabyle workmen. The latter, being both intelligent and willing to work, form a very valuable auxiliary to the former, and in many cases worthily replace them.

Were it not for this reserve the population of Algeria would be totally insufficient for the demands of agriculture; but the Kabyles come to the centres of colonization in great numbers during the seasons of harvest and vintage, and thus the colonists have abundant aid at the time when they most urgently require it.

The same circumstances have operated to diminish the value of European, and raise that of native labour in other employments than that of agriculture; formerly the latter were only exceptionally employed in industrial occupations, now the numbers increase daily.

The moral condition of the agricultural labourer is not all that could be desired, nevertheless, there is a sensible improvement in their condition, in proportion to the family ties which they contract.

Their relations with their employers are rather loose, if they show no marked attachment to them, they at least execute their orders with submission, and live on terms of harmony with their native neighbours.

There is one point to which the utmost publicity ought to be given, namely, that the climate of Algeria, though, on the whole, one of the finest in the world for the rich man who has no need to work, is utterly unsuited to labourers of the Anglo-Saxon race.

The experiment has been tried on numerous occasions, and always with the same result. During eight months in the year Englishmen can work in this country with even greater comfort than in their native land, but during the heat of summer they are incapable of performing hard manual labour demanding exposure to the sun.

If an Englishman is compelled by circumstances to remain and work in this country, he ought to pay the most scrupulous attention to personal cleanliness, in order to secure proper action of his skin; he should keep his head and loins well covered, avoid all alcoholic drinks stronger than common vin-ordinaire, and never cease to look upon the sun as his deadliest enemy, to be avoided as much as possible at every turn. At least during the months of July, August, and September.

It is the Latin race only that can colonize Algeria, and one may even limit the range further by selecting labour from that portion of the Latin race which inhabits countries immediately bordering the Mediterranean.

The artizan, who is not compelled to brave the midday heat to so great an extent as the agricultural labourer, may as a consequence be searched for over a wider geographical range. His condition is quite as good as in England: he lives better, lodges as well, and has always abundance of excellent meat, bread, vegetables, and coffee at a moderate rate.

The following are the ordinary rates of daily wages:—

	s.	d.
Masons	3	9
Stonecutters	5	0
Terracers	3	0
Miners	2	6
Carpenters	5	0
Joiners	4	0
Blacksmiths	4	0
Plasterers	5	0
Common labourers	2	1

The cost of living is not, on an average, more expensive than in France (my want of experience of the working classes in England does not permit me to extend the comparison to them). Some things cost more and others less. Food is as dear, lodging much dearer, but the climate does not render as much clothing necessary, and fires never are required.

A good, sober, careful, unmarried workman can easily save 30*l.* a year, as his living need not cost him more than 2*s.* a day, including food and lodging.

Many married artizans live comfortably and educate their families respectably on their daily wages. A lodging in a good position, containing two rooms, each 11 or 12 feet square, may be had for about 1*l.* per month. In towns, artizans never can obtain cottages or self-contained houses, they occupy apartments in large buildings, as is usual in all the great cities of France. These are too frequently badly ventilated and drained, and the difference between children who have always inhabited these crowded rooms, and those who have been brought up in the country is very striking.

The quality of work done in Algeria is quite equal to the average of that done elsewhere, but there are branches of industry not represented at all, and many things, especially such as require complicated machinery for their production, have to be procured from France.

The workmen here are natives of almost every country in Europe, and it is quite impossible to answer the third query in Lord Clarendon's Circular, as they contain amongst their number every shade of excellence from the model to the most worthless artizan. This heterogeneousness, however, has the effect of preventing unity of action, and, as a consequence, strikes are unknown amongst them.

During autumn, winter, and spring, Europeans can comfortably wear the same clothing as they would

their native countries, though they could do generally with less; during the summer the most comfortable and wholesome material is flannel or surge, it is light and open in texture, and the danger from checked perspiration, one of the most certain causes of fever, is not so great as when linen or cotton clothes are worn.

The hours of labour are generally from 6 till 11 in the morning, and from 1 till 5 at night in the winter. During summer they commence work earlier and leave off later: it was to have a longer interval of rest during the heat of the day.

I find it impossible to give the purchase power of money in Algeria as compared with that in England; I have been so little in the latter country during the past twenty-four years, that I have very limited experience of the cost of living there, especially to the working classes, but the opinion is generally prevalent that living, at least for the higher classes, costs more than it does in France, and much more than it does in England.

SUMMARY.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Sterling.		Purchase Power.
Labour, per Diem.	Fr.	c.	*s.*	*d.*	
Mason	4	50	3	9	
Stonecutters	6	0	5	0	
Terracers	3	60	3	0	
Miners	3	0	2	6	
Carpenters	6	0	5	0	
Joiners	4	80	4	0	
Blacksmiths	4	80	4	0	
Plasterers	6	0	5	0	
Common labourers	2	50	2	1	
*Provisions.**					
Wheat .. .. per 100 kilos.	28	0	23	4	
Oats .. .. „	18	0	15	0	
Barley .. .. „	17	0	14	0	
Beans .. .. „	20	0	16	0	
Butchers' meat .. „	60	0	50	0	
Bread .. .. per 1 kilo.	0	40	0	4	

* Prices of grain are unusually high at present, owing to the scarcity in France and the war with Prussia.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—A good and nourishing diet is absolutely necessary, and can be had for 2*s.* a day, including half a bottle of wine; a little extra expense, however, incurred for lodging will be greatly conducive to comfort and health.

Clothing.—The same clothing as is worn in England may be used here during nine months in the year, but so much is not absolutely necessary. In the summer much lighter clothing must be worn. Flannel or serge is the best material for a workman during the months of July, August, and September.

Lodgings.—A single man may hire a fair lodging for 10*s.* a month, a married man will require to pay 1*l.* In the country no general average can be given, as the Colony is so young that people have hardly had much time to devote their attention to comfort.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

As far as it goes, work is as well done in Algeria as elsewhere. Englishmen, however, are not advised to come to this Colony as out-door labourers.

I have, &c.

(Signed) R. L. PLAYFAIR.

CHARENTE.

Consul Vereker to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 17.)

My Lord, *Charente Inférieure, November* 12, 1870.

In compliance with the wish expressed in the Circular despatch dated 7th June last, received from the Foreign Office, I have the honour to transmit herewith a Report upon the industrial classes of the Department of the Charente Inférieure, which will, I hope, meet with your Lordship's approval.

I have, &c.

(Signed) H. P. VEREKER.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Vereker on the Industrial Classes of the Department of the Charente Inférieure.

The circumstances in which the industrial classes are placed in this district, and the conditions under which they live, are so similar in many respects to those which affect the same class throughout France that, with a view to the conciseness of this Report, those observations will be usually omitted which would apply equally to the rest of France.

The main objects which will be kept in view are twofold:—

1st. To ascertain whether advantages are here offered for the immigration of British workmen, with a probability that they may better their position.

2nd. Whether the conditions in which the industrial classes are here placed display advantages, the application of which to the British working classes might be attended with benefit.

In treating of these objects, the various points suggested in the Earl of Clarendon's despatches of the 30th April, 1869, and 7th June, 1870, will be incidentally discussed.

There are no certain statistics in this Department by

which the number of persons employed in each industrial occupation can be ascertained, and an estimate would be inaccurate; but the following information will enable a general and probably sufficient view to be taken of the subject.

The population of the Charente Inférieure was, by the census of 1861, 481,060, and by that of 1866 479,559; there has been an increase since 1866, so it may be taken at present to be 485,000.

The superficies of the Department is variously stated in the official returns at 654,685 hectares, and 682,569 hectares, and is estimated by Baron de Prouy as high as 716,814 hectares: the hectare equals 2·471, or about 2½ acres British. The differences between these estimates seem to arise from doubts as to reclamations from the sea, and from uncertainty in the lines of division with the conterminous departments. Taking 680,000 hectares as a medium, this gives ·71 inhabitants per hectare, that is, 71 inhabitants per 100 hectares, or 1 square kilomètre, a larger ratio than the average of France, which, according to the last census, gives only 69·52 inhabitants per square kilomètre.

The foreign element in the population is stated as follows, according to the census made in 1861, viz.:—

FOREIGN RESIDENTS.

Nationality.	Number.
British	77
Germans	92
Swiss	88
Spaniards	73
Poles	63
Italians	53
Belgians	37
Americans	22
Dutch	12
Russians	3
Swedes or Norwegians	2
Greek	1
Not specified	16
Total	539

This enumeration is exclusive of foreigners who visit the district temporarily, as seamen or otherwise, and it

indicates that the resident foreigners do not amount to more than 0·11 per cent of the population.

The employment of the ground is estimated to be as follows, though it is to be noticed that since the calculation was made there has been an increase in the land under vines, a decrease in the waste lands and woods through reclamation and appropriation, and a corresponding alteration in some other items:—

EMPLOYMENT OF LAND.

Nature of Crops.	Extent.
	Hectares.
Corn	224,395
Vineyards	157,753
Meadows	75,087
Wood	74,837
Waste and fallow	47,036
Potatoes, green crops, and gardens ..	31,462
Grazing	23,792
Houses, roads, &c.	23,592
Lucerne, clover, &c.	21,446
Total	680,000

The industries exercised in the Charente Inférieure are considerable. The first in importance and in the number of persons employed is agriculture; next comes the manufacture of brandy and wine, specially brandy, which, in so far as the culture of the vine is concerned, is a main branch of agriculture. As a brandy producing district the Charente Inférieure has attained great celebrity, being next to the Department of the Charente, the largest producer; and it is from its ports, particularly that of Tonnay-Charente, that all the best brandies are shipped, including those of Cognac and the Department of the Charente. Then there are the great salt plains, for extracting salt from sea water, which spread over large extents of low lands in the neighbourhoods of Marennes and Drouage, of La Rochelle, and throughout portions of the Islands of Oleron and Ré: the salt thus obtained is distributed in France. The sardine, mussel, and oyster fisheries along the coast are also remarkable elements of industry. The arsenal of Rochefort is well placed, contains all necessary appliances, and can employ 3,000 men. Among the minor industries may

be mentioned potteries, drainage, roof, and floor tiles; bricks, earthenware, patent fuel, and some porcelain manufactories, vinegar is largely made, glass and bottle manufactories are numerous; various works in iron are maintained; gas is made; there are sugar refineries, tanneries, leather dressers, cordwainers, and a host of smaller manufacturers. There are 2,600 wind and water mills almost constantly at work, chiefly for grinding corn. The slips for the construction and repair of vessels are numerous throughout the Department, specially at Rochefort, where it is boasted eighteen vessels of war of the first rank might be constructed at the same time. Turf is also prepared in some parts; in 1864 12,624 quintals metriques (the quintal metrique being 222¼ lbs. British) were disposed of, for 18,895 francs. Further, it is calculated that there are at least 800 houses where woollen or linen thread, cloth, or clothes are manufactured. This estimate, though official, appears below the reality, as there are few females who, throughout the Department, do not devote their spare hours to spinning, weaving, or stocking making, and such like occupations.

Besides the principal industries the following may be enumerated, viz:—

INDUSTRIAL ESTABLISHMENTS.

Nature of Business.	Number of Houses.	Managers.	Workmen.	Total Employed.
Building	4,815	5,266	3,146	8,412
Toilette	2,955	3,967	3,169	7,136
Provisions	4,554	5,457	1,215	6,672
Arsenal	1	1	3,043	3,044
Carriages, &c. . ..	1,044	1,133	512	1,645
Woodwork	836	936	544	1,480
Work in metal . ..	761	822	463	1,285
Woven fabrics . ..	784	886	379	1,265
Mining	277	272	466	718
Wax and candles ..	224	233	330	563
Furniture	166	177	239	416
Lighting	96	102	91	193
Scientific	44	40	143	183
Leather	67	76	45	121
Chemistry	32	33	38	71
Luxuries	34	38	10	48
Metallurgy	5	10	16	26
Total	16,695	19,449	13,829	33.278

The foregoing data will enable correct deductions to be formed on various of the subjects to which attention is invited. To enter into details in regard to some of the industries mentioned, would require several lengthy Reports; some of the more important have already been treated of in my annual Commercial Reports, others will be explained on future occasions. It will, therefore, suffice here to point out that the proportion to the general population of the skilled artizan class, such as mechanics, masons, bricklayers, stone-cutters, carpenters, black and white smiths, and those engaged in the various manufactures above quoted, is much the same in this Department as in other parts of France, but somewhat less than the proportion in England; there is also a considerable exchange of labour between the different industries, rendering it impossible to apportion, with accuracy, those engaged in any special line; for instance, in the agricultural seasons of pressure, such as hay-making, and harvest time, almost all labourers, whatever may have been their previous occupation, or their special attribution, become, for the time, agriculturists; and similarly, in regard to vineyards, in the pruning, earthing, and vintage seasons, all available persons join in the work: and this is a principle of mutual assistance in the elements of labour which is a necessary lever of success, as from the peculiarity of the climate, changeable from great heat to sudden copious rain, and causing a rapid development of vegetation, the more essential operations of husbandry have to be performed almost simultaneously throughout the Department, and within a very limited period.

To ascertain the ordinary industrial population of the Department there have to be deducted from the whole 485,000 those living on their means, women, children, sick and disabled persons, so that the actual working population appears to be by no means excessive; to this working class artizans contribute a fair proportion; and when it is considered that agriculture is conducted in an antique manner, that machinery is inadequately applied to assist manual labour, and that many accounted as of the working population are employed as soldiers, sailors, or otherwise, outside the district, it becomes a subject of admiration that so much should be done with so few hands.

The immediate conclusion to be drawn from these premises is, that the French workman does his work well; he has generally a personal interest in it; and uninformed as he is, unsupplied with modern inventions economizing labour, he nevertheless is enabled to produce from this district not only sufficient for the sustenance of the inhabitants but usually grain and other provisions for export; and this notwithstanding the constant augmentation of vineyards necessarily diminishing the ground available in agriculture for corn and green crops; an encroachment rather apparent than real, for the wealth gained by the preparation and sale of brandy and wine has been so great as to place in independence many families whose means of existence would otherwise be precarious; and many a man who has been able to buy a strip of vineyard land, has been, by its profits, enabled to sustain a family, and to look upon true agriculture, and the other employments in which he may be engaged, as a secondary source of prosperity.

The foreign element in this population is shown to be very small, 539 persons, or 0·11 per cent. of 485,000; and taking into account that many in this number are women, persons in retirement, children at school, foreign officials, clerks, merchants, and others, who do not belong to the working class, it will be perceived that the addition by immigration to the labour power of this district is very insignificant indeed; and this fact, *à priori*, and in view of the facilities of communication, especially with the United Kingdom, would imply that no available opening for regular immigration was presented; on the other hand, the circumstance that the population is barely sufficient for the requirements of the district, and that there is a sad want of improvement in many departments of industry, points towards a contrary conclusion.

To reconcile these apparent contradictions it is necessary to examine more closely the general conditions of labour. The bulk of the country population adhere much to ancient habits, and even prejudices; repugnant to change, they would look with suspicion upon the introduction of foreign labour, which might materially affect the conditions of wages; these feelings would cause a preliminary impediment to the success of the

foreign immigrant; but he would also be under the disadvantage that, until habituated to the manners and customs of the country, he would be unable to compete on equal terms with the native workman: the system of mutual assistance which is prevalent would also tell against the foreigner; thus, for instance, a farmer, when his business presses, is assisted by his neighbours on the understanding that when the occasion arises, he will give to them equivalent help. From the considerable amount of labour regulated on such conditions, where no money-wage is paid, the foreign emigrant would be necessarily excluded. The French laws, excellent in their way, indirectly interpose some obstacles which may affect, not unimportantly, the foreign workman. Thus, as a rule, foreigners, without ostensible means of existence, are not allowed to go from place to place seeking work; however good their character and conduct, they are liable, under such conditions, to be treated as vagabonds; and the rule, though acting harshly on individuals, is found to check vagrancy and crime. As an exception, licenses are granted to some workmen, and others, as pedlars, tinkers, hawkers, showmen, and even beggars. In effect it is found, that of the number of foreign workmen who occasionally arrive on special contract for the construction of railways, public works, or other objects, all, with rarely an exception, leave the district as soon as their contract is completed. As a further illustration of the influences operating to deter the immigrant workmen I may mention that of the many foreigners of the labouring class, seamen, and others, who have travelled through this department seeking their fortunes. I cannot call to mind any one who has succeeded; they wander to other parts, or return to the coast worse off than when they left.

In giving to this part of the subject of inquiry the most impartial consideration, I am led to the opinion that this department does not, at present, offer sufficient advantages to induce any large immigration of British artizans or working men: in fact, I could not advise any person of those classes to come here on that chance of employment which influences most intending emigrants: it would be different in regard to those who can obtain, by anticipation, contracts or solid promises of employment; such men, becoming in time habituated to the

locality, might no doubt find here openings for prosperity and advancement as eligible as those offered in England itself.

There is, however, a class somewhat higher in the social scale to whom this department offers openings exceptionally tempting. I allude to the skilled artizan who can set up business on his own account, and has sufficient capital and courage to bear the first disappointments, the usual concomitant of the start in a new country. British mercantile, and shipping-agencies, and such like, might also be established in the department with local benefit, and involving an important extension of British trade.

The working classes generally in the Charente Inférieure are in comfortable circumstances; poverty, accompanied with distress, is almost unknown amongst them; where it does exist it is usually traceable either to the fault of the individual or to his misfortunes, such as long illness; it rarely, except in cases of marked improvidence, arises from inability to obtain employment and remunerative wages. The artizans and workmen are, as a rule, honest, steady, provident, and remarkably abstemious and sober; and this observation applies with equal force to the workpeople of both sexes.

There is an absence of that strong separation between classes which exists in England and in various other countries; and this levelling upwards of the different classes, whilst it may have the effect of depressing in sentiment and character those of higher rank, has a perceptible influence in giving to the lower classes an independence of character and amount of self-reliance which, though not without drawbacks, raises them in the social scale, and, by the confidence it creates, materially assists their efforts to better their position. It is thus that, in most branches of employment, it is rather the employed than the employer who regulates the rates of wages; sometimes the employed considers that he is conferring, not receiving, a favour, when he accepts board, lodging, and fair wages from an employer who will necessarily derive profit from his work: this feeling is rather encouraged by the circumstance that in many lines of business but a slight distinction, except in financial and general superintendence, is maintained between employers and employed; they dine together,

work together, and the employed in some measure controls the work with which he is entrusted.

The general conditions of labour and social communion have therefore the tendency to diminish the harsh distinctions between master and servant, cause the latter to have more pride in his work and a stronger feeling of responsibility; and it may be said with justice that the French workman, not only in the amount and quality of his work, but in the honest desire that it should be creditable to him, can be favourably compared with the workman of any other country.

The principal mode of engagement for those fixedly employed is to give board, lodging, and daily wages, the latter payable weekly or fortnightly; but there are also many of the artizan and labouring classes, chiefly the last named, who are merely employed on daily wages, without board or lodging, and live away from their work; most of this class have, nevertheless, their regular engagements, and few indeed are found "seeking for work;" in some cases men are paid by the hours of actual work, and, more rarely, by contract according to the job performed.

The wages rates vary according to the nature of each engagement, and also in different localities, but the following may be accounted a fair average, without board or lodging:—For skilled mechanics, 4*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per day; for skilled artizans, 3*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.* per day; for artizans, 3*s.* 2*d.* to 4*s.*; for artizans' assistants and town labourers, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.*; for country labourers, 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.*; for Arsenal workmen, 1*s.* 7*d.* to 3*s.* 3*d.* each per day. A reduction of wages of from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 8*d.* per day is made when board and lodging are granted.

The legislation which affects the industrial classes is the same as that which applies to other sections of the community; their rights as well as their duties are similar to those of others; there exist establishments for sanitary measures, for relief in sickness, and for the aid of the poor and infirm, which, though in practice not always fully developed, are theoretically ample.

Hospitals, in which free treatment is offered to the necessitous, are established throughout the department: there are are skilful medical practitioners; Sisters of Charity, possessing admirable zeal; asylums exist for the aged and infirm; there are several Foundling Hospitals;

many free schools; a Lunatic Asylum at La Rochelle; and in addition to the superintendence which the Mayor and Town Council should exercise in each town, there are formed in the principal centres of population Boards of Health, who exercise a beneficial supervision in sanitory matters, and are in a special manner charged to watch and endeavour to check contagious and epidemic diseases: forty-seven of the towns also possess charitable committees, whose duty it is to receive and distribute amongst the most necessitous deserving residents such sums as may result from voluntary contributions or as they may be empowered to collect under local regulations. Several Saving Banks also exist.

The Department of the Charente Supérieure is situated between 45° 10′ and 46° 24′ of north latitude, and includes the Islands of Oleron, Ré, and Aix. The climate, as may be anticipated, in those latitudes is favourable to health, the transitions from heat to cold are rapid, and both reach unusually high points: there is also much rain and dampness chiefly in those districts bordering on the coast, resulting from the extent of sea which is caught within the projections of the land, and from the rivers and large marshes; the dampness diminishes, and the ratio of health improves, according to distance from the coast and marshes, and on approach to the higher elevations. In those parts where the calcareous, gravelly, or limestone subsoil forms an effective drainage system, longevity is prevalent, and the state of public health remarkably satisfactory: on the other hand, the lowest ratio of health is to be found in the damp lands and salt marshes: formerly Rochefort, situated in the midst of the low lands, used to be considered the most unhealthy town in France, but now by means of artificial drainage and closer attention to house and town sewerage, to supplies of pure water, cleanliness of houses and streets, and absence of over-crowding, these evils have been considerably diminished; nevertheless, much still remains to be done, the exhalations from the marshes, though scarcely perceptible, are insidiously poisonous; they cause low fevers, of the typhoid character, which induce mortality among children, injure seamen and other visitors, and, to some extent, affect the population of the low lands. When fever breaks out the immediate removal of the family to another locality

is the most obvious and necessary precaution to be adopted. Notwithstanding these drawbacks the general sanitary state, though open to amelioration, will bear favourable comparison with that of some other European countries, and of some other parts of France, and, as the main employments are of a character not unhealthy, it is to be hoped that the death-rate in this locality may be reduced to that prevalent in the most favoured countries.

In regard to clothing it is observable that the dress of the artizan, farming, and labouring classes are very similar; it generally consists of linen shirt, flannel or worsted jersey, woollen trousers, and woollen stockings, with a blouse overall: these articles are of country manufacture. A British workman might, without inconvenience, wear the dress to which he is accustomed in England, though occasionally lighter in summer; and in winter and changeable seasons flannel under-clothing would be advisable; constant cleanliness, and occasional baths, would also be found advantageous.

The main article of diet among the working classes in this district is, unquestionably, bread; it is almost universally of good wholesome quality, and free from deleterious admixtures; it is made of pure flour of the various qualities, excluding the bran or husks, so that what is called whole flour bread, is only obtainable by special contract; meat is not nearly so largely consumed among this class as in England, but vegetables are used, and bread-soups (with vegetables and the fatty extract of meat bones combined), which are supporting and palatable. The beverages consist usually of a morning cup of coffee, and during the day wine and water, mixed in about equal quantities. The wine of this country is not suitable to be taken plain, except in quite small portions, as it is apt to create acidity and heartburn. Brandy is above all things to be avoided by the working class, as the brandies obtainable by them are usually new, containing alcoholic force much above proof, and this creates a fictitious animation and vigour which is followed by an inevitable reaction, injuriously affecting the vital principles of health, and leading to apoplexy and prostration.

Referring to these matters of clothing, diet, conduct, and mode of living, I would say to those of my countrymen wishing to establish themselves in foreign countrries,

"Watch the system of living prevalent, wherever you may be, amongst the residents of your class, and conform yourself thereto as nearly as your feelings, habits, and position will permit."

In all countries there are differences, peculiarities it may be, in the mode of life, which to a new comer may seem strange and unaccountable, but a more complete acquaintance with the people, their diet, prices, means, climate, productions, and objects, generally proves that there are substantial reasons for the customs adopted.

Lodgings are easily procurable by the industrial classes; the rents vary according to circumstances, whether living with a family or not, with board or not, and whether in the country or town. A single room may average from 3*l.* to 4*l.* 10*s.* per annum; a house or part of a house, containing bedroom, kitchen, and office, reaches, according to the circumstances, from 5*l.* to 12*l.* 10*s.* per annum: such lodgings may be generally obtained near the work, and, as a rule, are clean, well ventilated, free from dirt, with efficient drainage, and as healthy as the locality will admit. As already intimated, some of the industrial classes reside with their employers, others, during an engagement for work become, for the time being, members of some neighbouring family; others hire single rooms, furnished or unfurnished, and with or without board; finally, others, particularly when married, obtain houses or parts of houses, larger or smaller. The system of two or three families of working people occupying the same house, whilst maintaining a certain exclusiveness by means of partitions and separate doors, is very common in some parts of the country, and seems due in a manner to the laws of succession, which require a separation of house and other property between the different members of a family.

The prices of provisions have for several years been rising, with but trifling intermissions, and in a proportion even greater than that of wages, although these latter have also augmented remarkably of late. The following may be taken as an average at the present time of the prices of the provisions most necessary for the daily consumption of the industrial classes.

Retail Prices of Provisions.

Articles.	British Measures.	Average Prices.		
		Currency.	Sterling.	
		Fr. c.	£ s.	d.
Bread, 2nd quality	5 lb. loaf	0 90	0 0	8·64
Butter	Lb.	1 50	0 1	2·40
Cabbage	Each	0 20	0 0	1·92
Candles, tallow	Lb.	0 70	0 0	6·72
Ditto, composition	,,	1 25	0 1	0·00
Coal	Cwt.	2 0	0 1	7·20
Coffee	Lb.	2 0	0 1	7·20
Eggs	Dozen	1 0	0 0	9·60
Flour	Lb.	0 35	0 0	3·36
Fowls	Each	2 0	0 1	7·20
Kidney beans, dry	Lb.	0 40	0 0	3·84
Lard	,,	1 20	0 0	11·52
Meat, common	,,	0 80	0 0	7·68
Oil, nut	,,	1 0	0 0	9·60
Ditto, lamp	,,	0 70	0 0	6·72
Potatoes	Cwt.	11 0	0 8	9·60
Rice	Lb.	0 35	0 0	3·36
Salt, coarse	,,	0 10	0 0	0·96
Soap, common	,,	0 50	0 0	4·80
Sugar	,,	0 70	0 0	6·72
Tea	,,	5 0	0 4	0·00
Tobacco	,,	4 0	0 3	2·40
Vinegar	Bottle	0 35	0 0	3·36
Wood	25 faggots	10 0	0 8	0·00
Wine, ordinary	22 gallons	40 0	1 12	0·00

N.B.—Exchange is taken at 25 francs per 1*l.* sterling.

When small quantities of the goods mentioned are required the prices are somewhat higher in proportion.

Comparing, in a general manner, the purchase power of wages in the Charente Inférieure with the purchase power of equal wages in England but little difference is to be noticed; in this district some of the necessaries of life are dearer, others cheaper than in England, and the economies which may be effected, or the comforts obtained, on a given amount of wages, will very much depend on the character or providence of the individual concerned; but, in order to form a just appreciation of this question, a marked distinction must be drawn between what the English workman and the French workman esteems to be the necessaries of life. The French, from their extreme moderation in food, their economical mode of dress, their sobriety, and providence,

are able to live cheaper than a British workman would contentedly do; and many things which an English workman would consider as indispensable necessaries, a Frenchman of the same class would look upon as useless luxuries; and therefore French workmen are often found to save yearly a respectable portion upon wages which would barely be found sufficient for the maintenance of a British workman in the same position. The system of saving and economy has also a beneficial effect on the French workman, by giving him hope in the future, and enabling him, year by year, to make small investments which, accumulating, permit him in time to change and improve his position. Cases have constantly come under my notice where French workmen have agreed to purchase interests in lands or houses on the condition of paying small instalments out of their earnings spread over a series of year. Artizans and others are also continually found who, having purchased a farm or strip of vineyard (a contingency to which all seem to look forward), whenever misfortune befalls them are not ashamed to return to their former occupations, until they have earned a sufficiency to recommence farming, or other affairs on their own account, with better prospects of success. The British working man might, with advantage, emulate those examples which are here found to elevate the character of the working class, and lead to their contentment and prosperity.

The quality of work done by French artizans and working men is generally satisfactory; they work energetically, and have a pride in doing their work efficiently, and in carrying it on well whether overlooked or not; they thus feel a sense of independence in regard to their work which approaches to a sense of honour. They would certainly oppose one of a gang who endeavoured to shirk his fair share of work, or to confuse his inferior work with the better performance of his fellow workmen. Most of the men are competent to what they undertake, and indeed display considerable cleverness and ingenuity in respect of their labour; and if they feel that they cannot do a thing well, they will usually declare so at the outset, and not attempt that which they are incompetent to perform. They would no doubt oppose bad wages; but though there is a certain mutual understanding among workpeople of the same class,

arising from their constant communications with each other, there is as yet, happily for this district, an absence of trade unions, associations, or combinations, having for their objects the compulsion of employers, and the obtaining of terms of wages which may not be justified by the state of the labour market, or the principles of supply and demand.

Subjoined is a summary and explanation of some observations in this Report, submitted in the form attached to the Circular despatch dated 7th June last, of Her Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs :—

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.				Purchase Power.
	Local.		British.		
	fr. c.	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	
Labour, without board—					I consider there is no real difference. French mode of living about 25 per cent. less than British. On French view of what is necessary, the purchase power would be about 10 per cent. more than quoted. On British view, about 15 per cent. less.
Artisans	3 50	to 9 0	3 2	to 7 6	
Assistants	3 0	5 0	2 6	4 0	
Country labourers	2 50	3 0	2 0	2 6	
Provisions—					
Bread, 5 lbs., seconds ...	0 90	...	0 8	...	
Meat, 1 lb., with bone ...	0 80	...	0 7½	...	
Wood, 1 faggot	0 50	...	0 4¼	...	
Wine, 1 gallon, ordinary .	2 0	...	1 7½	...	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Bread, chief article of food. Vegetables, cabbage, kidney beans (dry and green), potatoes, artichokes, radishes, lettuce, salads, cauliflower, and asparagus, mostly used. Soup, daily, of fatty bones and vegetables, with thick admixture of bread. Meat, boiled beef with vegetables remaining from soup; beef and mutton, roast occasionally; pork to be rarely taken. Beverages, one cup of coffee with or without milk in the morning; after work, wine and water; brandy to be specially avoided, also plain wine; water to be carefully selected. Fruits: grapes, apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, and chestnuts, recommended in moderate quantities; melons and walnuts to be avoided.

Clothing.—The same as worn in England, but lighter clothing would be advisable in hot summers; and in winter, or changeable seasons, flannel is recommended, especially to those whose work confines them to marshy districts.

Lodging.—Good wholesome lodgings for working

men are procurable without board at from 3*l.* to 12*l.* 10*s.* per annum, and within easy distance of the main centres of work; but it is often found most advisable to board and lodge with the employer, submitting in consequence to a small reduction of wages.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The industrial classes in the Charente Inferieure usually work well and honestly; they are sober and steady, exhibit some skill and cleverness, are careful and economical in their own affairs, and generally by gradual savings reach a competence and a better position.

(Signed) H. P. VEREKER.

Charente Inférieure, November 12, 1870.

CHERBOURG.

Consul Hamond to Earl Granville.—(Received November 26.)

My Lord, *Cherbourg, November* 25, 1870.

In conformity with your Lordship's instructions in Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, I have the honour to transmit herewith a report on the position of the industrial classes in this Consulate.

I have, &c.

(Signed) HORACE HAMOND.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Hamond respecting the Condition of the Industrial Classes at Cherbourg.

The Consulate of Cherbourg comprises the Departments of La Manche and Ille et Vilaine, the two principal towns being Cherbourg, situated due north, and St. Malo, south-west, of the Consulate. The position of the industrial classes inhabiting the towns differs in many respects from that of the country artizan and labourer. In the town the price of labour is dearer, the competition greater, and the class of work superior.

In the town the artizans out number the labouring classes in the proportion of two-thirds to one-third, whilst in the country it is the reverse, and in the general proportion to the other classes of society the difference is still more considerable.

This proportion varies much in various towns.

In Cherbourg, where the dockyard gives constant employment, the industrial classes compose half the population; in St. Malo, where there is a thriving trade in ship building, the proportion is rather less; but at the opposite town of St. Serven the industrial classes number little more than one-fifth of the others, being 2,250 out of a population of 12,327; in the smaller country towns the proportion is from one-sixth to one-seventeenth. The industrial classes in this Consulate may be considered to be badly lodged, the houses where

they hire their one or two rooms, according to the number of their family and their means, being insufficiently ventilated, badly drained, and cleanliness little attended to, the staircase seldom, if ever, washed, and the privies disgusting.

With regard to the nature of their engagements with employers, the workman being paid by the day for his work, leaves his employment at his own convenience; the employer takes no interest in the workman, who is equally indifferent about his employer. The nature of the engagements offers, therefore, little inducement for the introduction of labour from without, if even any opening presented itself.

The labourer in the country, or, as he may be more properly termed, the "farm labourer," may be classed apart. If he is in want of work he attends at one of the country fairs, which are generally held in the month of July. He is hired for the year, and is fed and lodged by his employer, receiving at the end of the term 300 francs (equal to 12*l.* English) for his services.

With respect to:—

1. Purchase power of money.
2. Matters of health.
3. Quality of work.

It will be my endeavour to sum up the substance of the information which has been given to me under these headings, and to offer a few general remarks for which there would not be sufficient space in a tabular form.

1. The purchase power of money is as 15 to 20, that is to say, that 15*l.* here would purchase as much as 20*l.* in England. This advantage is counterpoised by the price of labour here being in the same proportion less than it is in England. An intelligent English master bricklayer, who has resided in France for many years, both in the town and country, assured me that an English workman could not live in France on the daily pay of a French workman, the requirements of the English mechanic or artizan in the absolute necessaries of life, food and clothing, could not be supplied at the French price of labour. The French workman, however, manages to lay aside money, which he puts into the Savings Bank.

2. The diet to which an English workman is accustomed in his own country would be quite safe in this,

but the French diet would be insufficient for him. The common beverage is cider, which is considered wholesome and nutritious; but the brandy of the cabaret, which is sold at 1 franc or 10*d.* per quart, is most pernicious, morally and physically. The clothing worn by the industrial classes in this part of France would not be adopted as a pattern by the English artizan. The clothing usually worn by that class of working men in England would be suitable here, as the climate is very similar to that in the western counties. Lodgings, conveniently situated for work, may be found without difficulty; but in cleanliness, ventilation, and drainage they are fearfully deficient. When contagious diseases break out in the town the mortality is considerable.

3. The quality of work in general is very inferior—joiners' work is the best. As a rule the artizan evinces no pride in the execution of his task, for which his gainings are the greatest attraction, and a sense of honour would be hardly understood by him as being attached to it. The employer would naturally prefer a skilful and trustworthy workman, but would not be disposed to increase the rate of his wages. Greater encouragement might be advantageously bestowed by the employer on the skilful and trustworthy workman, and their mutual ties offer much room for improvement.

The foregoing remarks apply to the position of the working classes during a state of peace.

(Signed) HORACE HAMOND.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

		Currency.		Purchase Power.
		Local.	British.	
Town labour—		Fr. c.	*s. d.*	
Artisan ..	..	3 0	2 6	Purchase power in this part of France, 15 per cent. more than in England.
Labourer ..	..	2 25	1 10	
Country labour—				
Artisan ..	..	2 50	2 0	
Labourer ..	..	2 0	1 8	
Provisions—				
Bread, seconds	lb.	0 20	0 2	
Inferior meat	„	0 50	0 5	
Salt butter ..	„	1 25	1 2	
Salt pork ..	„	0 80	0 8	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Soup made of beef suet, boiled down with vegetables and bread—meat seldom ate—1½ lbs. of bread. In the country, soup made of pigs' lard instead of suet, a porridge of buckwheat, butter, and sour milk is a favourite meal. Beverage, cider.

Clothing, Winter.—Trousers of the commonest cloth; blouse, worn over a camisole.

Clothing, Summer.—Calico trousers and blouse.

Lodging.—70 cents, or 7*d.* a night. Unfurnished lodgings, one room and kitchen, 100 francs a year, or 4*l.*

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—Joiners' work is the best—other kinds of work hardly reach an average description—yet there is not a favourable opening for the introduction of labour from without.

REUNION.

Consul Segrave to Earl Granville.—(*Received December* 24.)

My Lord, *Réunion, October* 31, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Mr. Otway's Circular of the 7th June last, calling for Reports on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries.

It is not easy to form any approximate comparison between the condition of labouring men in this country and their condition in Europe.

Here the whole of the agricultural, and a large proportion of the mechanical labour, is performed by blacks of different nationalities.

The agricultural labourers, from the peculiar nature of their engagements, are looked down upon by the mechanics, and considered as only one remove from slaves.

For the few Europeans who are engaged in mechanical labour, the following may be looked upon as the fairest comparison between their condition here and in Europe:—

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
	Francs.	*s.* *d.* *s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
Labour .. per week	18 to 24	14 6 to 19 2	25 0
Provisions .. per day	1½ 2	1 3 1 8	2 6

NOTE.—The increased purchase power arises from the enforced difference between diet and clothing, as well as from the cheapness of lodgings.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Consists principally of rice, salt fish, and vegetables; occasionally poultry and pork. Mutton and beef are quite beyond the reach of the labouring

classes, and are, moreover, difficult to get, except in the chief town of the Island. The safest drinks are, coffee, and the ordinary Bordeaux or Provence wines, which can be procured for from 4*d.* to 6*d.* per bottle.

Labourers generally work from 6 to 11 A.M., when they have two hours for breakfast, resuming work at 1 P.M., and continuing till 6 P.M. They never have more than two meals in the day, their breakfast being their principal repast.

Rum should be sedulously avoided; it is, for a European, rank poison, and no one who has contracted the habit of drinking it can remain in this country and live.

Clothing.—The climate is generally healthy, and the temperature so equable that there is little necessity for change in the different seasons.

The commonest and best dress is made of blue cotton cloth (percale), which can be obtained always, and at reasonable rates.

Lodgings.—Can be easily obtained cheap, and comparatively healthy. At least, the health of a family mainly depends upon themselves, and the attentions they pay to cleanliness and ventilation. There are no dwelling-rooms as in Europe, each family occupying a cottage to itself, generally detached. The working classes generally live in the suburbs of the towns, and within easy distance of their work. Those who live in the country are generally attached to sugar estates.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The quality of the work is generally execrable; a good workman is a very rare phenomenon. There are, however, some few bright exceptions, which shows that application, not competency, is what the Creole fails in.

Apparently, their sole object is to get the highest price they can, and then do their work in the most careless and slovenly manner.

As a rule, they are all, blacks as well as Europeans, rogues from first to last, and are not to be depended upon in the most trifling matters.

I have, &c.

(Signed) W. SEGRAVE.

GEORGIAN or WINDWARD ISLANDS.

Consul Miller to Earl Granville.—(*Received December* 20.)

My Lord, *Tahiti, September* 21, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Mr. Otway's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, with its inclosures, calling for Reports on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries.

As regards this Consular district I beg leave, in reply, to state that at Tahiti the wages of good journeymen mechanics average about 12*s.* a-day; and although the prices of clothing and other necessaries of life certainly are extremely high, an artizan, nevertheless can, if sober, live here with ease; and the climate, though tropical, is healthy. But the field of employment for foreign mechanics in this small, and as yet little, developed country, is so very limited, that Tahiti cannot in truth be said to offer at the present time any opening for working men, of a character and importance likely to be of interest to artizans intending to emigrate from England.

The agricultural and common labour of this country is at present supplied by natives of this and other islands in the Pacific, and by Chinese coolies.

I have, &c.

(Signed) G. C. MILLER.

GREECE.

Mr. Erskine to Earl Granville.—(*Received October* 22.)

My Lord, *Athens, October* 25, 1870.

WITH reference to your Lordship's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, I have the honour to inclose answers to the queries therein contained, respecting the purchase power of money.

These replies have been addressed to me by Mr. Merlin, Her Majesty's Consul, to whom Mr. Watson, Secretary of this Legation, addressed himself before his departure on the leave of absence granted to him by your Lordship.

I have, &c.

(Signed) E. M. ERSKINE.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Merlin on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Greece.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
	Drachmas.	*s. d.* *s. d.*	
Labour* ..	3 to 5 per diem.	2 1 to 3 6 per diem.	Excepting for clothing, which is rather dearer than in England, the purchase power of money in Greece for most articles of diet, &c., is about double that in Great Britain.
Provisions—			
Bread ..	40 lep. per oke.	1*d.* per lb.	
Meat ..	160 ,,	4¾*d.* ,,	
Wine ..	40 ,,	10¾*d.* per gal.	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Bread, cheese, salt fish, fruit, &c. Very little meat is consumed by the labouring classes.

* Two manufactories have been established at the Piræus, for spinning cotton twist, in which a few girls are employed. The hours of labour are ten per diem; the girls receive 1*s.* per diem wages.

Clothing for Europeans, being imported from abroad, is 30 per cent. dearer than the same articles in England.

Lodging for the working classes, bad, and quite as dear as in Great Britain.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—The endeavours made in the time of the Bavarian occupation, and subsequently under King Otho, to introduce German settlements into Greece, have unfortunately resulted in failure, both as regards the Model Farm at Tyreus and the German village of Herakli, those colonists who escaped fever having generally fallen victims to intemperance—the agricultural labourer of the North being apparently unable to compete in this warm climate with the hardy Albanian and Wallach labourers and shepherds of the country, who manage to thrive where the former perish.

A few skilled mechanics, carpenters, blacksmiths, &c., might find employment in such towns as Athens, Syra, and Patras, but only a very limited number.

(Signed) C. L. W. MERLIN.

The Piræus, July 27, 1870.

PATRAS.

Consul Ongley to Earl Granville.—(*Received October* 3.)

My Lord, *Patras, September* 21, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to transmit inclosed answers to the questions contained in the Foreign Office circulars of the 30th April and 7th June, respecting the condition of the industrial classes.

I have, &c.

(Signed) H. S. ONGLEY.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Ongley respecting the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Patras, &c.

ALTHOUGH there is little to tempt an English artizan to emigrate to Greece, still, in obedience to the Foreign Office circulars of the 30th April and 7th June, I shall endeavour to reply to the questions therein contained. The proportion which the artizan and industrial classes in Greece bear to the other classes will be seen in the following Table, compiled from a Government Report issued in 1859, and from the work of Mr. A. Mansola, published in 1867:—

Population in	1852	1,002,112
„	1856	1,067,216
„	1861	1,096,810

Divided as follows (the Government Report gives the population under date of 1852, and the division under the date of 1853):—

	1853.	1856.	1861.
Agricultural population including—			
Landholders ..	229,259	243,807	16,122
Agriculturists ..			147,507
Shepherds			38,953
Labourers			19,592
			222,174
Artizans	25,546	22,609	32,801
Traders	6,280	6,925	10,245
Sailors	26,302	20,775	19,813
Scholars, male	39,981	64,961	42,680
,, female	5,455		9,035
Paupers	11,149	No return	No return
Bishops	26	do.	5,102
Priests and monks	5,114	do.	
Judicial employés	507	do.	3,553
Government employés	2,108		
Military and naval employés ..	4,866	do.	No return
Municipal employés	6,250	do.	5,199
Lawyers	252	do.	394
Medical men	274	do.	398
Midwives	1,300	do.	832
Apothecaries	No return	do.	161
Professors and teachers	679	do.	1,176
Servants, male	No return	do.	12,651
,, female	do.	do.	7,724
Carriers or muleteers	do.	do.	2,307
Painters, sculptors, &c.	do.	do.	1,346
Newspaper writers	do.	do.	68
Soldiers	do.	do.	No return

The agricultural population in 1853 and 1856 was supposed to consist of 229,259 and 243,807 families of three persons each, or 687,777 and 731,421 souls respectively; whilst in the Table of 1861 the agriculturists and shepherds are stated to be 186,460 families of four persons each, which would make 745,840 souls; but if the other classes, exclusive of scholars and servants, be calculated in the same manner the total amount would much exceed the whole population. It is to be regretted that the Statistical Returns are not more explicit.

A new census is now being taken, but some months must elapse before the result can be known. The principal feature in the above Table is the great increase in the professional, trading, and artizan classes, for, whilst the whole population has increased only 9½ per cent. in ten years, the artizans have increased 22 per

cent., the traders 63 per cent., and the lawyers 59 per cent.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

Annexed is a list of the prices of provisions at Patras, as well of the rate of wages received by the working classes, those who do piecework earn more: for instance, an expert barrel-maker will put together in a day fifty currant barrels, the staves, &c., being already prepared, for these he gets 15 leptas per barrel, or $7\frac{1}{2}$ drachmas (5*s.* 4*d.*), whilst as wages per day he would get at the most only 5 drachmas (3*s.* $6\frac{3}{4}$*d.*), but this lasts only four months in the year; for the remaining eight months he would get 4 drachmas per day (2*s.* $10\frac{1}{4}$*d.*) Boys are engaged in the different workshops, receiving $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ drachma per day according to their abilities. They are sometimes bound as apprentices for three years, the master being obliged to feed and lodge, and sometimes to clothe them, as well as to teach them the business.

Workmen are paid their wages every Saturday or Sunday. An artizan, as soon as he saves a few pounds, starts a workshop of his own, by means of which his earnings are often more than if he remained a simple workman at so much per day.

With agricultural labourers the rate of wages by the day varies considerably, and depends on the weather. This year it has been as high as 4 drachmas per day and a quart of wine, say 2*s.* $10\frac{1}{4}$*d.*, besides wine: 2*s.* per day is stated in the publication above alluded to as the average rate of agricultural labour in Greece, and when we consider that a labouring single man can get food and lodging for 9*d.* per day, it is evident that rural labour is well paid, and if the agricultural population does not increase on a par with the increase of the other classes it cannot be attributed to insufficient remuneration. Labourers in summer cease from work from noon to 2 or 3 o'clock. It is to be observed that a number of holidays are kept, so that about five and a-half working days per week is what must be calculated on. Agricultural labourers in winter are for many days prevented from working owing to rain, they have to walk sometimes two miles or more to their work, and the same distance back, while artizans live close to their work.

Women labour in the fields and also in the cotton

and silk winding manufactories. In the latter, at Calamata, the employed work from nine to thirteen hours per day, according to the duration of day-light, exclusive of the time occupied at meals, which is a quarter-of-an-hour at breakfast and one hour and a-quarter at dinner; the same pay is given in summer as in winter at a German establishment, others do not follow the same system, but close their manufactories as soon as their cocoons are finished.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—With respect to this subject little need be said beyond recommending that fruit and cucumbers be used only in moderation. It is advisable also to eat and drink sparingly in summer until the hard work of the day is over.

The labourer who works in the fields is very abstemious during the working hours, particularly in summer, whatever he may be after his work is done. Wine is the principal drink of the working classes, of course, next to water.

Clothing.—Little change is required in this; its cost is from 20 to 25 per cent. more than in England, most of it being imported from abroad and having to pay from 10 to 18 per cent. duty and town dues. Many people wear the same description of clothes all the year round, and even the peasants have their legs cased in woollen in summer as in winter. When the days are still hot it becomes very chilly in the evening, and, therefore, an overcoat or shawl is frequently necessary.

Lodging.—At Patras the greatest part of the town is tolerably well drained; most of the streets are wide; there is generally a strong breeze from the east or west during the day, and a light wind off the land at night, so that the place is pretty well ventilated: the only risk as to health which an artizan would have to run would be from the climate. Intermittent fevers are prevalent; in short, almost the whole of the seaboard of the Morea is unhealthy in summer. Unfurnished lodgings are procurable at from 10 to 25 drachmas (7*s.* 8*d.* to 17*s.* 10*d.*) per month; for the latter rate a small house, consisting of two rooms and kitchen on the ground floor, with a small court, could be obtained; for the former

price only one single room could be had. There are no taxes; no water laid on to small houses; but there are plenty of public fountains, with good water from the neighbouring mountains.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The Greeks think their own work good; but in England it would not be considered so. The note of the value of labour accompanying this Report shows that workmen are paid according to their ability. Such a thing as making a stand against receiving bad wages would not be thought of. An English artizan coming to Greece would find himself in some difficulty from his ignorance of the language.

Although the population of Malta is quite as redundant as that of Great Britain, still, Maltese do not emigrate to Greece.

Workmen come here from Albania, and return after a year or two; but they are men who can live on olives and bread, and who take a small room where eight or ten sleep together: these men spend 11*d.* or 1*s.* per day for food and lodging, but an Englishman would not put up with this.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

[100 leptas equal to 1 drachma.]

LABOUR.

	Currency.								Purchase Power.
	Greek.				British.				
	Dr.	l.	Dr.	l.	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	
Coopers	5	0	to 2	0	3	6¾	to 1	5⅛	Per day of 12 hours in summer; 10 hours in winter.
Ditto, by piece work ..	7	50	..		5	4¼	..		
Shoemakers.. ..	3	50	2	0	2	6	1	5⅛	Per day of 12 hours in summer; 10 hours in winter.
Masons	6	0	3	0	4	3⅜	2	1⅝	Per day of 12 hours in summer; 9 hours in winter.
Carpenters	6	0	2	50	4	3⅜	1	9⅜	Ditto.
Cabinet makers ..	4	0	2	0	2	10¼	1	5⅛	Per day of 12 hours in summer; 10 hours in winter.
Smiths	5	0	2	50	3	6	1	9⅜	Per day of 12 hours in summer.
Painters	4	0	2	50	2	10¼	1	9⅜	Per day of 12 hours in summer; 9 hours in winter.
Tailors	4	0	2	0	2	10¼	1	5⅛	Per day of 12 hours in summer; 10 hours in winter.
Cutlers	5	0	3	0	3	6¾	2	1	Ditto.
Gunsmiths	5	0	3	0	3	6¾	2	1⅝	Ditto.
Saddlers	5	0	3	0	3	6¾	2	1⅝	Ditto.
Jewellers	5	0	3	0	3	6¾	2	1⅝	Ditto.
Silversmiths.. ..	5	0	2	0	3	6¾	1	5⅛	Ditto.
Winnowing - machine makers	4	0	1	75	2	10¼	1	3	Ditto.
Cartwrights	4	0	3	0	2	10¼	2	1⅝	Ditto.
Wheelwrights ..	4	0	3	0	2	10¼	2	1⅝	Ditto.
Silk-winders ..	3	0	2	0	2	1⅝	1	5⅛	Ditto.
Boys at the above trades	1	50	0	50	1	1	0	4¼	Ditto.
Cotton-spinning manufactories—									
Males	3	0	2	50	1	5⅛	1	9⅜	Per day of 10 hours.
Females ..	1	20	1	50	0	10¼	1	0¾	Ditto.
Young girls ..	0	60	0	80	0	5⅛	0	6¾	Ditto.
Silk-spinning manufactories at Calamata—									
Males	2	0	2	50	1	5⅛	1	9⅜	Per day of 13 hours in summer; 9 hours in winter.
Females ..	1	0	1	40	0	8½	1	0	Ditto.
Young girls up to 14 years of age .	0	20	0	80	0	1½	0	6¾	Ditto.
Agricultural labourers—									
Males	1	60	3	0	1	1⅝	2	1⅝	Per day of 9 hours in summer; 7 hours in winter.
	besides 1 quart of wine, worth 4*d.* per quart.								
Females	0	80	2	0	0	6¾	1	5⅛	Ditto.

PROVISIONS.

	Currency.				Purchase Power.
	Greek.		British.		
	Dr. l.	Dr. l.	s. d.	s. d.	
Bread, 1st quality ..	0 50	..	0 4¼	..	Per oke of 2¾ lbs. English.
,, 2nd quality ..	0 40	..	0 3⅜	..	Ditto.
Flour	0 80 to	1 20	0 6¾ to	0 10¼	Ditto.
Beef	1 20	1 60	0 10¾	0 13⅝	Ditto.
Mutton	1 20	1 40	0 10¼	0 12	Ditto.
Pork	1 40	2 0	0 12	0 17⅛	Ditto.
Fish	0 80	2 0	0 6¾	0 17⅛	Ditto.
Turkeys	3 0	7 0	2 6	5 0	Each.
Ducks	1 50	2 0	0 12¾	0 17⅛	Ditto.
Geese	5 0	6 0	3 6¾	4 3¼	Ditto.
Fowls	1 40	2 0	0 12	0 17⅛	Ditto.
Eggs	0 10	0 20	0 0¾	0 1½	Per pair.
Butter	5 0	7 0	3 6¾	5 0	Per oke of 2¾ lbs. English.
Milk	0 60	..	0 5⅛	..	Ditto.
Cheese	2 0	2 40	0 17⅛	0 20½	Ditto.
Potatoes	0 25	0 50	0 2⅛	0 4¼	Ditto.
Onions	0 10	..	0 0⅝	..	Ditto.
Beans in the shell ..	0 70	0 10	0 6	0 3¼	Ditto.
Peas in the shell ..	1 0	0 30	0 8½	0 2½	Ditto.
Wine	0 30	0 70	0 2½	0 6	Per quart.
Beer, bottled, English .	..	..	12 0	..	Per dozen bottles.
Tobacco	4 0	..	2 10¼	..	Per oke of 2¾ lbs. English.
Charcoal	0 8	0 12	0 0⅝	0 1	Ditto.
Wood	0 2½	0 3½	0 0¼	0 0⅝	Ditto.
Petroleum	1 60	..	0 13	..	Ditto.
Olive oil	1 50	2 0	0 12¾	0 17⅛	Ditto.
Sugar	1 70	..	0 14½	..	Ditto.
Tea	14 0	..	10 0	..	Ditto.
Coffee	2 80	..	2 0	..	Ditto.
Rice	0 85	..	0 7¼	..	Ditto.
Grapes	0 24	0 50	0 2	0 4¼	Ditto.
Pears	0 30	0 60	0 2½	0 5⅛	Ditto.
Melons	0 10	0 20	0 0¾	0 1½	Ditto.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Most articles procurable in England are to be had at Patras.

Care should be taken not to eat too much fruit and cucumber in summer. Spirituous liquors should be avoided or partaken of but very sparingly during working hours in the hot season.

Clothing.—Little or no change necessary in this. Its cost is from 18 to 25 per cent. more than in England, from which place a great deal of it is procured. Exposure to the cool night land breeze of summer should be avoided or guarded against by an overcoat or shawl.

Lodging.—Tolerable unfurnished lodgings can be procured at from 7*s.* 3*d.* per month for one room, and

17*s*. 10*d*. per month for two rooms, a kitchen and a small court. No taxes, no water, nor gas laid on. Plenty of public fountains with good water.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Not such as would in England be considered good. No combination of workmen against bad wages. Few large employers of workmen exist. Workmen, as soon as they save a little money, become employers themselves.

SYRA.

Consul Lloyd to Earl Granville.—(*Received October* 4.)

My Lord, *Syra, September* 20, 1870.

In compliance with the instructions contained in your Lordship's Circular of the 7th June last, requiring a Report upon the industrial classes of Syra, with reference to the inducement for British artizans to emigrate to this place, I have the honour to forward herewith the Return in question, according to the form prescribed.

I have, &c.

(Signed) ST. VINCENT LLOYD.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Lloyd on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Syra.

The only opening for a British artizan in Syra is as engineer or boiler-maker in the works of the Greek Steam Navigation Company here, or on board their vessels, which alone have the exclusive privilege of the steam-coasting trade in Greece; and this opening is very limited, the number employed being regulated by the work to be done, which varies; and vacancies are filled up from England when required, but are now being chiefly filled up, or as much as possible, by Greeks who have served their apprenticeships in the said Company's works.

Besides the Greek Steam Navigation Company's works, there are other eight steam-mills here, namely, four for grinding wheat, three for grinding bark for tanning, and one for ginning cotton. One foreigner, however, only, and he a Frenchman, is employed as engineer in one of these steam-mills; the engines of all the rest are driven by native firemen who have been previously employed in the Greek Steam Navigation Company's service; and when anything goes wrong,

they apply to the Company to see what is the matter, and put it to rights.

In the Company's service there are at present, of English:—

			£	s	
English—					
26 engineers, whose average wages are		..	16	0	per month.
5 boiler makers	,,	..	14	10	,,
Foreign—					
10 boiler makers	,,	..	11	0	,,
Greek—					
4 boiler makers	,,	..	9	0	,,
20 engineers	,,	..	8	0	,,

Of other foreign artizans here, and not in the Company's service, there are only some six or seven, being Germans and Italians, and, I believe, Polish, who are tailors, shoemakers, wood-carver, and painter.

The hours of work in the Greek Steam Navigation Company's works, are nine and a-half, namely, from 6 A.M. to 6 P.M., with one hour, from 8 to 9 A.M., and an hour and a-half, from 12 to half-past 1 P.M., for meals, with the same wages, all the year round.

In other employments the hours are from sunrise to sunset, with perhaps an hour for meals; but much of the artizan work is paid for by the piece, in which case they frequently work later than sunset.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.						Purchase Power.
	Local.		British.				
Labour.	Dr.	lep.	£	s.	d.		
Average monthly wages of—							Is, considering the different qualities of clothing, lodging, food, and the extra expense to make them suitable, one-half, or perhaps less; except for engineers, single men afloat, for whom, having lodgings free on board, it may be rather more than one-half; and the cost price of crude victuals alone will be 2*l.* 10*s.* per month for a single man.
British engineers ..	552	0	16	0	0		
,, boiler makers ..	500	25	14	10	0		
Provisions.							
Cost per oke of 2¾ lbs. avoirdupois—							Innutritive qualities:
Beef	2	40	0	1	4½		Equal to 1¾ lbs of English beef.
Bread	0	5	0	0	3¼		,, 2 lbs. ,, bread.

34 drachmas 5 leptas equal to £1 sterling.

II. *Matters of Health.*

The climate of Syra is one of the best and healthliest in the Levant, owing chiefly to the rocky nature of the soil, and the sea air that surrounds the island. Extreme cold is unknown, snow falling once in two or three years, and melting immediately; and extreme heat is tempered by the generally prevailing northern winds in summer.

Diet.—Syra is well supplied with beef, veal and lamb in season, and pork in autumn and winter; sheep and goats' meat being coarse, strong-smelling, and unhealthy, though eaten by the lower classes of the natives, who, however, mostly subsist on bread, olives, salt fish, fruit, and vegetables. Bread is abundant, but not so good as it ought to be; damaged flour, or flour from damaged wheat, is too often mixed with good; nor is the bread well-baked. Butter is rare and expensive, oil being chiefly used by the natives; but it takes a long time for British to become accustomed to oil.

Spirituous liquors are cheap and abundant, and are indulged in to excess by the lower orders here, every third or fourth building in the main street and along the quay being a coffee-shop and tavern, in many of which the spirits are distilled; and all consumed on the premises, or outside in the public thoroughfare, a small quantity sufficing to produce the same effects as a much larger in a colder climate. The wine of the country is plentiful and good when new, and not adulterated; but not being well made, it soon turns acid; and to prevent which, gypsum and resin are much employed, and which give it a detestable flavour for those not used to it; foreigners, therefore, rarely drink it, and the temptation to use spirits is thereby increased, and the health of the individual who gives way is most surely and speedily undermined. Moderation in eating and drinking is absolutely necessary to health for a British artizan; eating little and often, rather than much at a meal, being far preferable. Over-exertion and exhaustion are certainly bad, and should not be ventured upon.

Clothing.—The natives are in general warmly clothed, both in summer and winter; the native labouring classes are, however, but slightly clothed, particularly in summer. A British mechanic finding the weather warm, and his

clothes soaked in perspiration, is tempted to divest himself of much of his usual clothing; and if he but take care not to expose his body to the direct influence of the atmosphere, he may do so without harm, otherwise it is dangerous to do so; and he should be very cautious of remaining in a draught when in a state of perspiration; towards evening there is a very sensible diminution in the temperature of the air; and it is pernicious to be exposed to the dew, which is often heavy.

Lodgings, compared with those in England, are bad, and difficult to be found; and decent lodgings for single men, near their work, not to be had at all, none being built for speculation, as they do not pay the interest of the cost, compared with the high rate of interest on money. Those fit for families that are to be found sufficiently near to the mechanics' work, which is all in the lower part of the town, are certainly well ventilated —doors, windows, and crevices abounding; but for this reason the wind in winter penetrating everywhere, makes the otherwise moderate cold severely felt; and the natural advantages of the climate are counteracted in these lower parts of the town by the bad drainage and general uncleanliness which there produce miasmatic dirt and air poisoning. A small house of four rooms, for an artizan, costs 20*l.* a-year; water is expensive, say 3*l.* a-year; and charcoal, used for cooking and heating rooms in winter, will cost 4*l.* a-year.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

That executed by native workmen is far from being generally first-rate. Employers are glad to get foreigners when they can; but Greeks are exclusive, and foreigners find it difficult to live and work with them; and the foreign journeymen here are such as employers cannot do without, or such as habit and long residence have accustomed to the place. The native artizans do not seem to take a pride in their work: the Greeks here not being much inclined to hard work, but rather to head-craft; losing no opportunity of endeavouring to make every, the least, thing a matter of speculation with a view to immediate profit: their great object being, apparently, to gain as much money as possible in the shortest space of time, and with the least possible bodily exertion.

Brief Summary of Remarks.

There is no opening for employment for British artizans in Syra; nor any prospect for the present.

The above Report is made from information given me by Mr. Smith, Superintending Engineer of the Greek Steam Navigation Company's works and boats; and by Mr. Jones, Engineer and Draughtsman, in the same employ; and from my own observations.

(Signed) ST. VINCENT LLOYD.

Syra, September 20, 1870.

ITALY.

Sir A. Paget to Earl Granville.—(*Received January 2, 1871.*)

My Lord, *Florence, December 26, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith two Reports from Mr. Herries on the working classes in Italy.

The first of these Reports was drawn up by him while he was in England lately on leave of absence, and the second, or supplementary Report, in answer to the additional queries contained in the late Earl of Clarendon's Circular of June 7, 1870, gives such information as he has been able to gather since his return to Florence.

I have &c.

(Signed) A. PAGET.

Inclosure.

Report by Mr. Herries on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Italy.

ACCORDING to the returns of the Census, which was taken on the 31st of December, 1861, the total population of the kingdom of Italy, as then constituted, amounted to 21,777,334 persons, of whom 7,708,631 were employed in agriculture and in branches of industry connected therewith, 58,551 in mining and metallurgy, 3,072,245 in manufactures and industrial arts, 634,438 in commerce, 534,485 in liberal professions, 164,415 in religious occupations, 130,597 in the public administration, 240,044 in the army, navy, and police force, &c.; 604,437 were described as proprietors, 473,574 as domestic servants, 305,343 as paupers, and 7,850,574 as having no profession.

The subject of agricultural labour having been already treated in another Report, need not be alluded to here.

Of the 58,551 persons enumerated under the head of Mineral Industry, 55,757 were males and 2,794 were females; 23,749 (22,487 males and 1,262 females) were engaged in the extraction, and 34,802 (33.270 males and 1,532 females) in the working of mineral products.

The following particulars are taken from an official Report on the state of these branches of industry in the year 1865 :—

Iron Mines.—Number of mines worked, 44; number of persons employed, 2,212: adults, 1,888; children, 324.

Daily Wages.

	Adults.			Children.		
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.
Piedmont	2 0	1 50	1 50	..	..	..
Lombardy	2 0	1 0	1 33	1 0	0 41	0 70
Tuscany (adults and children)	1 90	1 40	1 61	..	..	..
Calabria	..	..	1 25	..	..	0 85

Copper Mines.—Number of mines worked, 34; number of persons employed, 2,412.

Daily Wages.

	Adults.			Children.		
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
	F. c.	F. c.	F. c	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.
Piedmont	2 50	1 50	1 73	..	..	0 85
Liguria	7 14(?)	0 60	1 40	0 90	0 70	0 80
Lombardy	2 0	1 50	1 56	..	..	..
Venetia	1 20	1 0	1 2	0 80	0 50	0 73
Emilia	1 80	1 50	1 70	..	..	..
Tuscany (adults and children)	2 0	1 40	1 76	..	..	..

Galena Mines.—Number of mines worked, 13; number of persons employed, 4,105; adults, 3,417; children, 426.

Daily Wages.

	Adults.			Children.		
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.
Piedmont	2 75	1 60	1 67	..	..	0 85
Lombardy	2 0	1 2	1 46	..	..	..
Venetia	..	..	1 30	..	..	..
Tuscany (adults and children together)	..	..	1 32	..	..	..
Sardinia	2 16	1 91	2 9	..	..	..

Zinc.—Number of mines worked, one in Venetia; number of persons employed, 23 adults. Average daily wages, 1 franc 30 centimes.

Gold.—Number of mines worked, 14 in Piedmont; number of persons employed, 635 adults and 7 children. Daily wages: adults, highest, 2 francs; lowest, 1f. 40c.; average, 1f. 80c.; children, highest, 1 franc; lowest, 80c.; average, 91 centimes.

Quicksilver.—Number of mines worked, 2; number of persons employed, 288; adults, 274; children, 10. Daily wages: adults, Venetia, average, 1 franc; Tuscany, adults and children, average, 1f. 80c.

Nickel.—Number of mines, 2 in Piedmont; number of persons employed, 24 adults. Daily wages: highest, 2 francs; lowest, 1f. 60c.; average, 1f. 70c.

Iron Pyrites.—Number of mines, 2 in Piedmont; number of persons employed, 36 adults. Daily wages: highest, 1f. 80c.; lowest, 1f. 70c.; average, 1f. 76c.

Manganese.—Number of mines, 4; number of persons employed, 213: adults, 188; children, 25. Daily wages: Piedmont, adults, average, 1f. 90c.; Liguria, ditto, highest, 3f. 50c.; lowest, 60 centimes; average, 1f. 43c.; children, average, 94 centimes.

Anthracite.—Number of mines, 2; number of persons employed, 4 adults. Daily wages: highest, 1f. 50c.; lowest, 1f. 25c.; average, 1f. 38c.

Lignite.—Number of mines, 20; number of persons employed, 750: adults, 579, and children, 3 (*sic*) Daily wages: Piedmont, adults, average, 2 francs; Liguria, ditto, highest, 5f. 30c.; lowest, 60 centimes; average, 1f. 79c.; children, 1f. 15c. Lombardy, adults, highest, 1f. 50c.; lowest, 1f. 30c.; average, 1f. 37c. Venetia, adults, highest, 1f. 35c.; lowest, 1f. 25c.; average, 1f. 32c.; children, average, 75 centimes. Emilia and Marches, adults, average, 1f. 50c. Tuscany, adults and children, average, 1f. 76c. Umbria, ditto, 1f. 50c.

Sulphur.—Number of mines, 379; number of persons employed, 22,935: adults, 13,678; children, 9,257. Daily wages: Emilia, adults, highest, 3f. 98c., lowest, 1f. 2c., average, 2f. 61c.; children, highest, 1f., lowest, 60c., average, 80 centimes. Marches, adults, highest, 3f. 32c., lowest, 50c., average, 2f. 48c.; children, highest, 1f. 60c., lowest, 1f. 30c., average, 1f. 40c. Sicily, adults and children, highest, 2f. 18c., lowest, 1f. 30c., average, 1f. 74c.

Iron Works.—The number of persons employed is stated as follows in one part of the Report from which these extracts are taken :—

Total number, 8,781. Skilled workmen, 4,804; ordinary labourers, adults, 6661, children, 316.

These figures, which are exactly copied from the official return, give very curious arithmetical results, and on adding up the separate columns I find that the total sums ought to be, instead of 8,781, 8,177; instead of 4,804, 2,510; and instead of 6,661, 5,351.

Inaccuracies of this kind are unfortunately very common in Italian statistical Tables.

In another part of the Report the numbers are given thus :—

Total, 8,781. Skilled workmen, 1,804; ordinary labourers, adults, 6,661, children, 316.

Under one head, that of foundries and machine-making establishments, the following variations between the two statements occur :—

Total, in the former statement	4,394
Ditto, in the latter	4,998
Skilled workmen, in the former	1,438
Ditto, in the latter	732
Labourers (adults), in the former	2,810
Ditto, in the latter	4,120

The average rates of wages are estimated at 3f. 5c. a day for skilled workmen, at 1f. 80c. for adult labourers, and at 87c. for children.

Copper Works.—Total number of persons employed, 287. Skilled workmen, 195; labourers, 92. Average daily wages, 1f. 70c.

Lead Works.—Total number of persons employed, 775. Skilled workmen, 204; ordinary labourers—men, 396, women, 68; children, 107. Average wages: skilled workmen, 2f. 70c.; labourers, men, 1f. 90c.; ditto, women and children, 1f. 9c.

Sulphur Works.—Employed in melting, 3,870 adults and 3,869 boys, the average rate of wages being 1f. 58c. a day. Employed in refining, 39 refiners at 2f. 38c., and 13 labourers at 1f. 66c. a day.

Gas Works.—Total number of persons employed, 1,117. Average rate of wages, 2f. 17c.

Petroleum Works.—21 men. Wages from 2f. to 1f. 25c.

Asphalt Works.—63 men and boys. Wages from 3f. 20c. to 1f. 57c.

Chemical Works.—426 persons. Wages varying from 44c. to 4f.

Coke Burners.—38, their highest rates of wages being from 50c. to 5f.

Bell Founders.—17. Average wages from 1f. 26c. to 2f. 35c.

Persons employed in various Processes for obtaining Gold, Zinc, and Mercury.—120. Average rates of wages from 1f. 10c. to 1f. 74c.

Quarries, &c.—Persons employed in the extraction and working of marble, building stone, earths, &c., for cement, pottery, and other purposes, 24,898.

Lime-kilns, Plaster, and Brickmaking, Common Pottery, &c.—Number of workmen, 49,174.

Porcelain and Earthenware.—Number of persons employed, 1,492. Average rates of wages for skilled workmen, 2f. 15c.; for adult labourers, 1f. 70c.; for children, 58 centimes.

Glass—Various.—Number of persons, 1,979. Average wages: skilled workmen, 3f. 96c.; adult labourers, 2f. 77c.; children, 44c. Glass beads, &c., Venice: highest wages for men, 12f.; for women, 1f. 50c.; lowest for men, 1f. 50c.; for women, 75c.

Salt Works.—Number of workmen, 2,843. Average wages from 1f. 3c. to 2f. 75c.

In the year 1861 the Italian Government instituted an inquiry into the industrial condition of the new kingdom, but owing to the unwillingness of the manufacturers, who were suspicious of fiscal designs, to furnish reliable information, it was not possible to collect complete statistics. Those of two provinces only, Bergamo and Parma, have been published. In the former the number of persons employed in different branches of industry was as follows:—

Silk	17,009
Woollen	695
Linen and cotton	936
Paper	318
Leather	37
Various	434
Total	19,449

Of whom 361 were employed in direction and management; 1,567 men and 10,920 women were paid by the day; 608 men and 698 women by the piece, and there

were, besides, 5,295 children. The aggregate annual amount of wages was 2,417,120 francs, which would give no more than, excluding fractions, 2 francs 30 centimes a week per head, supposing that all the mills were working constantly. By far the greater number of them, however, are open during less than six months in the year.

16,958 persons, of whom 957 were men, 11,064 women, 96 boys, and 4,841 girls, were employed in the production of raw and thrown silk. The highest wages for men was 6 francs 50 centimes, and the lowest 25c. a day, the average rates for different descriptions of work being 2f. 80c., 1f. 45c., 2f. 57c., and 1f. 5c.

Women earned from 25 centimes to 5 francs a day, and the averages were 2 francs, 75 centimes, 92 centimes, 60 centimes, 57 centimes, 80 centimes, 2 francs 5 centimes, 68 centimes, and 50 centimes. The average daily wages of children were from 33 to 63 centimes. Silk weaving gave employment to 43 adults, 25 men and 18 women, and 8 children. They were nearly all paid by the piece. Men earned from 40 centimes to 3 francs 50 centimes, and women from 40 centimes to 1 franc. 695 persons—445 men, 136 women, and 114 children—of whom 329 worked by the day and 252 by the piece, were engaged in the woollen manufacture. Wages for men ranged from 60 centimes to 3 francs, and for women from 30 centimes to 65 centimes.

Linen and cotton manufactures occupied 936 persons; 336 men, half of whom worked by the day and half by the piece, 456 women, of whom 148 were paid by the day and 308 by the piece, 39 boys, and 105 girls. Men's wages ranged from 52 centimes to 10 francs, women's wages from 25 centimes to 2 francs, and the average earnings of children were 40 and 52 centimes a-day.

Paper mills employ 163 men, 142 women, and 13 children, at wages varying from 50 centimes to 5 francs for men, and from 30 centimes to 1 franc for women; the average for children being 33 centimes.

There were 37 tanners (34 adults and 3 children) receiving from 40 centimes to 3 francs daily.

In other branches of industry 355 adults and 76 children worked, besides 23 persons who were employed as directors, superintendents, &c.

According to the statistical Returns for the Province of Parma there were, in 1861, out of a total population

of 256,029, 36,009 persons engaged in manufactures. Only 2,593 persons, however, are specifically enumerated under the following heads of industrial occupation :—

	Overseers or Foremen.	Operatives.			Total.
		Men.	Women.	Children.	
Textile manufactures	7	30	293	105	435
Clothing	14	134	36	47	231
Food	6	1,328	19	1	1,348
Metallurgy	2	86	..	25	113
Ceramic industry	1	22	..	..	23
Wood working	3	61	..	4	68
Instruments	2	18	..	5	25
Chemical products	13	141	8	8	170
Various	..	98	61	24	183

The different rates of wages paid are stated thus :—

	Men.			Women.			Children.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Average.
	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c	F. c.
Silk spinners, &c....	2 80	1 .0	1 82	2 80	0 50	1 29	0 60
Woollen, silk, and cotton weavers, ropemakers, &c.	...	...	1 0	...	...	0 75	...
Hatters	2 50	0 80	1 47	...	...	0 70	0 34
Tailors	2 0	1 0	1 60	0 80	0 30	0 60	0 20
Shoemakers	5 0	2 0	2 0	...	0 70	...	0 34
Persons employed in corn mills ...	2 0	0 25	0 87	...	...	...	...
Ditto in dairy farms	3 0	0 50	1 66	...	...	...	...
Pork-butchers, sausage-makers, &c. ...	3 0	0 65	1 84	...	...	...	...
Bakers and makers of pasté, &c. ...	3 0	0 55	1 75	...	...	...	...
Pastrycooks and confectioners	3 20	1 85	1 90	...	...	...	...
Brewers and distillers	2 0	0 50	1 20	...	...	...	...
Iron and copper-founders	3 50	1 35	2 3	...	...	...	0 58
Nailmakers, locksmiths, &c.	1 50	1 40	1 45	...	...	...	0 65
Workers in copper and bronze	2 36	0 80	1 50	...	...	...	0 32
Ditto in brass and tin	1 50	1 20	1 40	...	...	...	0 34
Potters	3 60	1 0	1 66	...	...	...	...
Furniture-makers...	2 20	1 40	1 85	...	...	...	0 23
Coachmakers	1 40	0 50	0 80	...	...	...	...
Coopers	1 50	1 0	1 23	...	...	...	...
Agricultural instrument makers ...	1 60	1 30	1 43	...	...	...	...
Brushmakers	1 0	0 80	0 90	...	...	...	...
Makers of weights and measures ...	3 0	0 60	1 50	...	...	...	0 15
Cutlers, surgical instrument makers ...	2 0	0 80	1 50	...	...	...	...
Pianoforte-makers	...	2 0	...	...	...	...	0 30
Tanners	3 50	0 50	1 55	...	...	...	0 77
Dyers	2 30	1 25	1 45	...	...	1 40	0 30
Soapboilers	2 50	1 0	1 80	...	...	...	0 20
Wax-candle and sealing-wax makers ...	4 0	1 50	1 10	...	...	0 60	...
Persons employed in gasworks	5 0	1 0	1 92	...	...	...	...
Papermakers	1 50	0 80	1 40	0 88	0 50	...	0 54
Playing-card makers	2 0	0 90	1 50	...	...	0 67	0 14
Printers	2 50	0 50	1 38	...	...	...	0 23

Since the time when the above statistics were compiled wages in most parts of Italy are said to have risen considerably in some trades to the extent of 30 or 50 per cent. It is exceedingly difficult, however, to obtain accurate information on the subject.

Some useful data are contained in an interesting account of the progress and present state of the woollen

manufacture in Italy, which was published last year by Mr. Alexander Rossi, a Senator of the Kingdom and the owner of extensive mills at Schio in the Province of Vicenza. The total number of persons employed is estimated in this work at about 25,000, and the average rates of wages which they receive are calculated as follows :—

For men and children from 70 centimes to 1 franc 25 centimes.

Foremen.—Spinners, from 2 francs to 3 francs 50 centimes ; weavers, from 2 francs 25 centimes to 3 francs ; others, from 1 franc 20 centimes to 2 francs 25 centimes.

These rates are said to be from 20 to 25 per cent. lower than in France, Belgium, or England.

A tabular statement gives in detail a comparative view of the wages paid for different kinds of work in the woollen manufacture in Italy in 1868 and at Verviers in the year 1836, 1846, 1856, and 1863. It is with some omissions, as follows :—

	Verviers.				Italy.
	1836.	1846.	1856.	1863.	1868.
	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.
Sorters (women)	0 98	1 22	1 70	1 85	0 83
Rinsers (?) ("risciacquatori") ..	1 40	1 46	1 60	2 60	1 70
Carders	0 90	1 0	1 30	1 50	1 75
Spinners	1 80	1 90	2 90	3 35	3 10
Scourers ("purgatori").. ..	1 47	1 75	2 30	3 25	2 50
Warpers (women)	0 80	0 95	1 57	1 65	1 0
Burlers (women)	0 70	0 75	0 85	1 35	0 90
Weavers	2 0	2 70	2 87	3 0	2 60
Fullers	1 40	1 70	1 75	2 30	2 0
Revisers and finishers (women) ..	0 80	1 0	1 20	1 70	0 85
Pressers ("soppressatori") ..	1 47	1 78	1 78	2 15	1 80
Semstresses	0 73	0 80	1 10	1 40	1 25
Menders (women)	0 98	0 90	1 55	1 75	1 0
Carpenters	1 98	2 0	2 25	2 75	2 0
Smiths	2 0	2 50	2 50	3 0	2 50
Stretchers and shearers	1 0	1 25	1 40	2 68	1 50
Labourers	1 0	1 25	1 75	2 0	1 20

The lower price of labour is a set-off in favour of the Italian manufacturer against the higher price which he has to pay for machinery. At the same time Mr. Rossi contends that, in spite of the difference of wages, Italian operatives are really not in a worse condition than those of Belgium.

Their work, he says, is more constant because the Italian woollen manufacture, being limited to the supply

of the home market is less subject to disturbance than the industry of Verviers, which depends chiefly upon foreign demand. House rent in manufacturing districts is 50 per cent. lower in Italy than in Belgium, and food is also cheaper.

Further, he observes that the frugal habits of the Italian operative, and the mildness of the climate in which he lives, tend to diminish his wants.

Mr. Rossi has, in the most obliging manner, drawn up for me a notice of the principal woollen manufactories at Schio and elsewhere in the Province of Vicenza, accompanied by a short Memorandum on the condition of the working classes in Italy, from which the following remarks are taken:—

Two-thirds of the persons employed in manufactures are taken from the agricultural class. They live in houses, of which they are sometimes the owners, in the country, frequently upon the mountains, and their habits are those of agriculturists. They either leave their homes for the mill in the morning and return in the evening, or, if the distance is too great, they go on Monday and return on Saturday. The amount of their house-rent cannot be calculated, but at any rate it is not a heavy burden. The rest of the operatives, who live in towns, are crowded together in small and often unhealthy habitations, for which they pay a correspondingly low rent, varying from 50 to 120 francs a-year for two or three persons, and more in proportion for a large number.

A certain sense of dignity, however, is beginning to influence the operatives. A desire for the improvement of their dwellings will soon be felt among them, and the increase of rent, which will be the consequence of the demand for better lodgings, will lead to the construction of houses for the working classes in manufacturing towns.

The preponderance of the rural element in the operative class has its advantages and disadvantages, but the latter are greatly overbalanced by the former. The principal disadvantage is want of education. The advantage consists in the superiority of the village to the town in point of thriftiness, steadiness, and morality, as well as of vigour of constitution.

Further, it is to be observed that the dissemination of the operatives is an impediment to strikes and coalitions.

About 1,150 persons of both sexes are employed in Mr. Rossi's establishment at Schio, which is admirably conducted.

When I visited it last year the greatest activity and order prevailed. The proprietor deserves the highest praise for all that he has done and continues to do to promote both the material well-being and the intellectual culture of the people who are dependent upon him. Among other things may be mentioned houses which he has constructed for forty families, an infant asylum, schools, &c., and a handsome theatre capable of holding 600 persons, which he has recently built for representations by the working people themselves.

In the book alluded to above this gentleman gives the Italian operatives a very good character for sobriety, regularity, and intelligence, and his opinion agrees with that which I have heard expressed in other quarters. At Venice in particular, on the occasion of a visit which I paid to some iron works belonging to Mr. Neville, an English gentleman, a French director of the establishment, who has had considerable experience in different countries, spoke very highly of the qualities of the men under him. He said that he had always found them remarkably quick, persevering, and orderly. There were never any strikes or coalitions among them, and the business of the establishment was not disturbed by political agitation. Of Italian operatives in general when properly disciplined and controlled he thought very well, and he declared that, in industrial aptitude, they were inferior to those of no other country.

Wages in this establishment vary from 2 to 6 francs a-day, the working hours being eleven and a-half in summer and ten and a-half in winter. Steam-engines, machinery, agricultural instruments, tools of all kinds, hydraulic presses, iron bridges, roofings, &c., are made.

The subjoined account of the wages paid in different trades is extracted from the industrial statistics of the city and Province of Venice, which have recently been compiled by Professor Albert Errera, the author of various useful publications of a similar nature, and who is well known for his zeal in promoting the improvement of the condition of the working classes.

Silk spinners, &c.—Men; foremen, 3 francs, ordinary

hands, 1 franc, 1 franc 15 centimes, 1 franc 25 centimes; women, 2 francs, 1 franc 15 centimes, 1 franc 12 centimes, 1 franc, 75 centimes, 65 centimes, 50 centimes.

Hatters, from 1 franc 50 centimes to 3 francs.

Capmakers.—Men, 3 francs, women, 1 franc 30 centimes, children, 1 franc.

Candlemakers.—Men, from 1 franc 50 centimes to 5 francs; women, from 60 centimes to 1 franc 50 centimes,

Vinegar makers and distillers, from 1 to 4 francs.

Employed in the manufactory of starch.—Men, 2 francs; women, 1 franc: children 60 centimes.

Boat builders, from 1 franc to 2 francs 50 centimes.

Brewers, about 2 francs.

Flax dressers.—Men, from 2 to 5 francs; children's earnings by piece-work from 60 to 70 centimes.

Lithographers from 2 to 4 francs.

Furniture-makers, from 1 to 5 francs.

Persons working in flour-mills, from 75 centimes to 2 francs 50 centimes.

Makers of Vermicelli and other paste, from 1 franc to 2 francs 30 centimes.

Tobacco Manufactory.—Men from 1 franc 50 centimes to 3 francs; women, from 65 centimes to 2 francs; By piece-work, maximum of daily earnings, 3 francs.

Printers, from about 1 franc 50 centimes to 2 francs 40 centimes.

Typefounders, 2 francs.

Lead pipe makers, 2 francs to 3 francs 50 centimes.

Brickmakers, from 1 franc to 2 francs.

Mosaic workers, men from 2 francs to 14 francs; children from 25 centimes to 1 franc 50 centimes.

Soapboilers, from 1 franc 50 centimes to 5 francs.

Employed in salt works—men 2 francs to 3 francs; women, 1 franc to 1 franc 20 centimes; children, 50 centimes to 1 franc.

Glass.—Number of persons employed, 3,279. Amount of ascertained annual expenditure in wages, 1,322,888 francs. This does not include the earnings of 712 persons who are paid by piece-work. Work is carried on during 44 weeks in the year; and the duration of daily work is 12 hours.

In 1869 I was informed that the wages in glass-works at Murano were, for master-blowers, from 30 to

40 francs a-week; for ordinary blowers, 25 francs; for assistants, 15 francs. At Salviati and Co.'s Works, however, much higher wages were paid, being at the rate of about 100 francs a-week for a first master; 75 francs for a second master; and 40 francs for an assistant. The wages paid to mosaic workers in the establishment of this company are stated above.

According to a Report by Dr. Errera on the glass industry of Venice, the average rates of wages earned by bead-makers in 1869 were, for men, 2 francs 50 centimes, and for women, 1 franc a-day. Changes of fashion have within the last few years caused great oscillations in this important branch of Venetian industry. An extraordinary stimulus was given to it between 1865 and 1868, by the increasing taste for beads, particularly in London. A great extension of the manufacture took place. The demand for labour considerably exceeded its usual supply, and wages rose so high that all who could do so abandoned their habitual occupations for bead-making. A period of wonderful prosperity was followed by one of corresponding depression. The demand for Venetian beads ceased, and a large number of persons was thrown out of work. The shoemakers, tailors, carpenters, &c., who had been attracted to the bead manufacture by fancy wages would have been glad to return to their former employments, but in many cases they found their places filled by new comers. This state of things occasioned great embarrassment and distress, which seemed likely to lead to serious disorder. To meet the difficulty the several Workmen's Associations, under the direction of Professor Errera, appointed a committee, which classified the unemployed, and used its good offices in procuring occupation for them in their original trades, the preference in the bead manufacture being secured to those who had always belonged to it. With the assistance of the masters the exertions of this committee were in great measure successful. There were still, however, in August, 1869, as many as 500 persons out of work in consequence of the crisis in the bead trade.

In most trades wages are for the day's work.

Strikes are of very rare occurrence at Venice.

The food of the poorer classes is said to be exceedingly bad. By the exertions of benevolent persons, however,

economical kitchens have lately been established for supplying wholesome and well-cooked food at moderate charges.

The general condition of the habitations of working people is described by those who have examined them, as being most deplorable; wet, filthy, full of vermin, and confined. A company has been formed for the construction or purchase of substantial houses to be let out to working men at moderate rents. Two large houses for that purpose had been built in August, 1869.

Co-operative associations of working men for production have been formed in several trades, but in almost all cases they have proved failures. A baker's society was soon brought to utter ruin by incapacity and dishonesty. Societies of printers, tailors, and shoemakers still struggle on. The only undertaking of this kind which has been really successful is the Co-operative Association of Shipwrights and Caulkers, presided over by Professor Errera, under whose management its affairs have prospered. In the course of a year, from 1868 to 1869, the number of the associates increased from 27 to 119, and the amount of the funds of the society from 2,757 francs to 6,124 francs. It has executed and continues to receive some important orders, and the association seems to enjoy a very good reputation.

A co-operative society for the supply of articles of ordinary consumption at low prices for ready-money, was established in 1867. It is well conducted, its business is increasing, and the system has been found very beneficial to the working people.

For the information which I have been able to obtain respecting Venetian industry, I am chiefly indebted to Professor Errera, who has given me his assistance in the most obliging manner.

I proceed to give the results of my inquiries in such of the industrial districts of Northern Italy as I was able to visit after leaving Venice.

At Brescia, the Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce kindly furnished me with the following statistics for that province. They were compiled in 1861, since then many changes have probably taken place. I was told, however, that some of the data, and particularly those relating to the paper, wood, and marble trades, might still be considered as tolerably correct.

Woollen, cotton, and linen manufactures, 600 men and 560 women employed.

Wages of the former, from 1 franc 20 centimes to 2 francs 50 centimes: those of the latter from 80 centimes to 1 franc 40 centimes.

Iron—2,000 persons employed; average wages 2 francs a day.

Copper and bronze—80 persons; average wages 1 franc 80 centimes.

Paper—210 men; wages from 75 centimes to 4 francs. 180 women; wages from 50 centimes to 1 franc 50 centimes.

Tanning—250 persons, receiving from 1 franc 20 centimes to 2 francs 50 centimes a-day.

Wood—400 persons; wages from 1 franc to 3 francs.

Stone and marble—100 persons; wages about 2 francs.

Printing—90 persons; wages from 1 franc to 3 francs.

The manufacture of arms is now one of the principal branches of industry in the district of Brescia. The most considerable private establishment for this purpose is that of Messrs. Glisenti, which I had an opportunity of seeing. About 500 hands were working there, the total number of persons (none of whom were women) employed within and without, being, as I understood, about 1,100. Almost all of them were paid by the piece at rates which enabled a superior gunmaker to earn 4 francs a-day, an ordinary hand 2 francs, and a common labourer 1 francs 25 centimes. They were principally inhabitants of the neighbourhood. The supply of labour was said to be plentiful, exceeding the demand.

At the Government Small Arm Factory at Gardona I was informed that some men were paid by the hour, at rates varying from 65 to 15 centimes, and others by the piece, the price being sufficient to give a skilful workman, after the deduction of what he had to pay to his assistants, a clear profit of from 4 to 5 francs a day.

At a small private gun-barrel manufactory I found men earning from 2 to 3 francs a day.

Nail-makers, paid by piece-work, were getting from 2 francs 50 centimes, to 3 francs.

The lodgings of working men in the town of Brescia were said to be not very bad, the rent of two or three rooms being about 50 or 60 francs a year.

Bergamo.

Working people are almost always paid by the day. The most skilful operatives in the silk and cotton manufactures were receiving, in 1869, 5 francs, the wages of ordinary hands (men) being about 1 franc 80 centimes. Women were almost exclusively employed in silk mills as reelers, throwers, &c. A few years ago they were supposed to be unfit for such occupations. Their wages were about 60 centimes besides food, or 1 franc without food for fourteen hours' work. Young girls earned from 35 to 65 centimes a day, according to their age and the nature of their employment. They begin to work when they are six years old. In summer they are occupied in the mill from 5·30 A.M. till noon, and again from 2 till 8 P.M. Inspectresses received 3 francs a day.

Masons, bricklayers, &c., were paid at rates varying from 1 franc 50 centimes to 2 francs a day.

I gathered that working people at Bergamo were badly housed, and that they paid for their lodgings at the rate of from 10 to 20 francs a year per room.

Lecco.

Men employed in silk mills were paid by the piece, earning from 1 franc 80 centimes, to 3 francs. Women paid by the day received 1 franc for twelve and a-half hours' work in summer, and 90 centimes for ten hours in winter. Those paid by the piece in particular branches earned from 1 franc to 1 franc 50 centimes in ten hours. Girls from nine to fifteen years of age received from 40 to 80 centimes a day. These rates were all about 40 per cent. higher than they had been two years before. In some mills silk throwers (men) were paid partly by the day, at the rate of 1 franc, and partly by the work done.

In ironworks smiths' wages were from 2 francs to 2 francs 50 centimes a day. From 2 francs to 5 francs might be earned by men paid by the piece in small branches of iron industry, which they carried on at home. Nailmakers were earning, by piece-work, from 1 franc to 1 franc 20 centimes.

The working population generally was declared to be tolerably well clothed, fed, and lodged. The rent of a single room was from 20 francs to 30 francs a year.

The progress of industry and the increasing demand for labour had caused an influx of the rural population into the town. Houses formerly untenanted were full, and it was difficult to find lodging.

Strikes appear to be more frequent at Lecco than elsewhere. This is almost the only place in which I have heard complaints of the tyrannical interference of trade unions with the freedom of labour.

Como.

The principal industry of this district is the silk manufacture, which, although it has somewhat declined of late years, is still very important.

Some statistics compiled in 1867 show that in the first process (that of spinning from the cocoons) about 5,000 women and young girls were employed. In 1869 women's wages were 1 franc a day for thirteen hours' work. They had soup besides, and in most of the mills were lodged on the premises.

The number of silk-throwers, principally men, in 1867 was about 1,000. They were paid by the piece, and might earn (in 1869) from 1 franc 50 centimes to 2 francs 50 centimes a day.

About 6,000 persons in all, three-fifths of whom were men and two-fifths women, were occupied (1867) in hand-loom weaving, dyeing, &c. The number of looms was 2,700. Weavers were at the time mentioned paid from 45 centimes to 55 centimes per metre. When I was at Como in 1869 the ordinary rate was 70 centimes, but at one factory—the only one, I believe, where weaving was done on the premises—from 80 to 90 centimes were paid. I was told that 3 metres was the average quantity of plain silk made in a day by a weaver working for eleven hours.

There was said to be a slight deficiency of labour in Como and the neighbourhood, owing to emigration. A supply, however, was obtained from the surrounding country.

I was assured that the habitations of the working class were, upon the whole, not bad. Rent was variously estimated at 40 francs a year for a room, and about 100 francs for three rooms occupied by a weaver's family.

Master manufacturers with whom I had opportunities of conversing gave a very good account of the operatives

in whose moral as well as economical condition a marked improvement had, they declared, taken place recently. From having been some years ago given to dissipation and drink, the working men had become industrious, orderly, and thrifty. They showed a desire for instruction. In the opinion of one large mill-owner, the very beneficial influence had been exercised by friendly and co-operative (for consumption) societies. Strikes, I was told, were unknown, and no pressure was put on masters or operatives by trade unions.

Milan.

Owing to the necessity of returning immediately to Her Majesty's Mission at Florence, I was unable to stay long enough in the capital of Lombardy to make myself acquainted with the conditions of labour in different trades there.

I was favoured, however, with some general remarks by a gentleman of considerable experience in various industrial undertakings, and it may be useful to give the substance of them.

He observed that, with the exception of the persons employed in certain special trades in the city of Milan, such as coach-building, cabinet-making, printing, &c., there could not be said to exist any distinct artizan class in the Milanese, or indeed in the north of Italy generally, agricultural labour being the original and principal occupation of the majority of the working people, who only occasionally resorted to other kinds of industry. Thus, for example, the great bulk of the ordinary furniture produced was made at home by peasants at seasons when they had no field work to do.

Masons, with whose habits he was particularly acquainted, being concerned in the building trade, migrated periodically, and had no fixed abode. They came to Milan from various parts of Lombardy, and while engaged in work slept in miserable, filthy lodging-houses, paying at the rate of about 2*d.* a night for a bed. They, and plasterers likewise, went from time to time not only to other parts of Italy, but also to France and Germany, where their skill was highly appreciated. Their average daily earnings at Milan were about 1 franc 80 centimes, or 2 francs.

With regard to the dwellings of working people

generally, my informant said they were by no means good, though rents were high,—at the rate of about 80 or 90 francs a year for a room. A company had been formed a few years since for the constitution of better houses, but the undertaking had not been very prosperous, and the new apartments intended for artizans were in general too expensive for them.

Labour in various trades was somewhat scarce (in 1869) owing to emigration to America. It was not supplied to any considerable extent from other parts of Italy or from abroad. Persons, however, who were employed as foremen in industrial establishments, and skilful workmen for special purposes,—as the setting up of new machinery,—were frequently brought from foreign countries,—England and Germany particularly.

Strikes occurred occasionally in different trades, but they were seldom very serious or of long duration.

Co-operative associations for retail consumption were flourishing and useful; those which had been formed for production did not seem successful. Three of the latter were in existence,—the Printers', the Cabinet-makers', and the Comb-makers' Societies.

A good opinion was expressed by this gentleman of the general conduct of the working population, whom he describes as being for the most part quiet, sober, and thrifty.

I was able before leaving Milan to visit one of the most important industrial establishments there,—Messrs. Binda's button, &c., manufactory,—in which about 700 persons were employed, making at the rate of 500,000 buttons a day. The hands were paid by piece-work, and I was informed that button-makers ought to earn, men at the rate of 3 francs or more, and women from 1 franc to 1 franc 50 centimes a day. The weavers who made the silk stuffs for covering buttons, &c., earned at the rate of about 4 francs a day. The duration of actual work was ten hours daily.

From a large proprietor at Mantua I learn that the average rate of artizans' wages in that city is about 1 franc 50 centimes a day, and that their lodgings are rather good than otherwise, the rent for a family consisting of five persons being not more than 100 francs a year.

In Liguria the average daily wages of factory hands generally were reckoned in 1869 at about 1 franc.

80 centimes, those of shipwrights at from 4 francs to 5 francs 50 centimes, and of caulkers at 5 francs. The average for working men in the town of Genoa was estimated at about 5 francs; in the principal towns of Piedmont at 3 francs, and in the smaller towns at about 2 francs.

A workman is hired by the day, by the fortnight, by the month, or he is paid by the job. Sometimes he makes an agreement with his employer fixing the rate of wages during a whole year.

The following statistics of the working population of Naples were published by the Municipal Administration of that city in 1868:—

Tanners, 222 males; daily wages from 1 franc 30 centimes to 4 francs.

Employed on railways, 231 males; wages from 1 franc 50 centimes to 4 francs 65 centimes.

Workmen in iron founderies, 2,140; wages from 1 franc 60 centimes to 5 francs.

Workmen employed in soap manufacture, 43; wages from 85 centimes to 2 francs 75 centimes.

Pipe-makers, 30 men; wages from 85 centimes to 1 franc 30 centimes.

Potters, 313 men; wages from 1 franc 20 centimes to 2 francs 70 centimes.

Shoemakers, 241 men and 55 women; men's wages from 1 franc 70 centimes to 3 francs; women's wages from 50 centimes to 1 franc.

Dyers, 117 men; wages from 1 franc to 2 francs 50 centimes.

Goldsmiths, 168 men; wages from 2 francs to 6 francs.

Iron-bedstead and spring-mattress makers, 67 men; wages from 1 franc to 2 francs 50 centimes.

Hatters, 100 men and 28 women; wages, for men, from 1 franc 50 centimes to 5 francs; for women, from 50 centimes to 1 franc.

Coppersmiths, 46 men; wages from 1 franc to 2 francs.

Carpenters, ordinary, 38 men; wages from 85 centimes to 2 francs 13 centimes.

Carpenters employed in coach-building, 66 men; wages from 1 franc 30 centimes to 2 francs 60 centimes.

Carpenters employed in furniture-making, 387 men; wages from 1 franc 30 centimes to 3 francs 50 centimes.

Men employed in breweries, 31, wages from 1 franc 50 centimes to 4 francs.

Glovers, 80 men and 313 women; men's wages from 1 franc 30 centimes to 2 francs 50 centimes.

Lace-makers, 34 men and 58 women; men's wages from 1 franc 85 centimes to 3 francs.

Tailors, 243 men and 27 women; men's wages from 2 francs to 3 francs 60 centimes.

Saddlers, 17 men; wages from 1 franc 50 centimes to 4 francs.

Linseed-oil makers, 41 men; wages from 1 franc to 2 francs.

Men employed in the preparation of white-lead, 9; wages from 1 franc to 2 francs.

Men employed in glass-works, 28.

Men employed in stearine manufactories, 10; wages from 85 centimes to 2 francs.

Persons working in wax manufactories, 54 men and 6 women.

Printers, 341 men and 18 women; men's wages from 2 to 4 francs; women's wages from 50 centimes to 1 franc.

Pianoforte-makers, 66 men; wages from 1 franc 70 centimes to 4 francs.

Gilders, 53 men; wages from 2 to 5 francs.

Type-founders, 8 men; wages from 1 franc 50 centimes to 3 francs.

Gas-fitters, 5 men; wages from 1 franc 50 centimes to 5 francs.

Coral-workers, 195 men; wages from 1 franc 70 centimes to 8 francs.

Employed in the tobacco manufactory, 587 men and 1239 women; men's wages from 3 francs 43 centimes to 4 francs 97 centimes; women's wages from 70 centimes to 2 francs 50 centimes.

Chocolate-makers, 5 men; wages from 1 franc 20 centimes to 3 francs 30 centimes.

Paste-makers, 24 men; wages from 1 franc 20 centimes to 2 francs.

Lucifer-match makers, 8 men and 10 women; men's wages from 85 centimes to 1 franc 70 centimes; women's wages 35 to 85 centimes.

Men employed in tallow-works, 5; wages from 85 centimes to 2 francs.

Men employed in lime works, 12; wages from 1 franc to 3 francs.

Employed in the manufacture of chemical products, 18 men and 6 women.

Workers in tortoiseshell, 5 men.

7869 artizans that are enumerated, 6098 males and 1771 females,—out of a total estimated population of about 600,000. These statistics, however, cannot be considered as complete.

A gentleman who is well acquainted with the condition of the working classes at Naples, informs me that it is tolerably good. He observes that their dwellings are indifferent. They do not inhabit particular quarters of the town, but live in all parts of it, and almost every great house or palace contains some room or rooms occupied by artizans.

As a rule they are paid by the day, piece work being the exception.

No foreign workmen are, I believe, employed, nor would they probably find employment, in any industrial establishments in this part of the country.

Her Majesty's Vice-Consul at Messina has made the following statement respecting the working at that place (in 1869):—

"Artisans generally occupy one apartment on the ground floor, and one or two rooms above. Agricultural labourers, servants, fishermen, and labourers, one room on the ground floor.

"They" (the artisans) "are mostly engaged by the day, and work about ten hours in the winter, and twelve in the summer.

"The rates of wages they receive average from 1 franc 50 centimes to 4 francs a-day.

"Generally speaking, there is no lack of labour, and all those willing to work find employment, but I do not think there is any opening for the introduction of labour from without.

"The artisan is considered as a respectable member of society. He is frugal in his diet, and very sober. He is allowed half-an-hour for his breakfast, and one hour in the winter, and two hours in the summer for his dinner and repose. His repasts consist of bread and fruit and a glass of wine. In the evening he sups with his family on macaroni vegetables, or pulse, and fish.

He indulges in meat twice a week. His dwelling is neatly furnished, and tolerably clean. Agricultural labourers and fishermen are also very frugal, but they do not fare so well. Their wages and gains seldom exceed 2 francs a-day, and they are satisfied when they can get bread, vegetables, or pulse. Their habitations are small, filthy, and have scarcely any furniture.

"The common labourers can earn from 3 to 4 francs a-day during the winter months, and from 1 to 2 francs in the summer. They are a very hardy class of men, and able to bear any amount of fatigue."

From Palermo the following information has been obtained:—

"The working classes occupy miserable lodgings in narrow and filthy lanes.

"The engagements of working men are generally by the day, others by the week or the month, and many by the job. Wages may be considered at present (in 1869) as from 1 franc 50 centimes to 5 francs per diem.

"Labour may be considered as embracing municipal work and private work. The former is plentiful, the latter scarce."

A report from Her Majesty's Vice-Consul at Girgenti is to this effect:—

"The working classes generally, occupy small houses in town, very dirty; perhaps one room will contain man and wife with five or six children.

"The nature of engagements varies. Carters and muleteers, are generally employed by the week or the month, men employed on public works or in the mines by the week.

"The average rates of wages are, for sulphur miners, at the rate of 4*s*. a-day, for boys at the mines 8*d*., men employed at road-making and building, from 1*s*. 6*d*. to 1*s*. 8*d*. Foreigners might find work on the railway and Provincial roads."

An English civil engineer of considerable experience in Sicily has favoured me with some observations, which are given below:—

"The habitations of the working and lower class population of Sicily are of the meanest character. Those of the towns and cities are miserable, dark, unventilated, unclean, and without a vestige of comfort, while those

of the interior, occupied by agricultural labourers, miners, &c., are of the most wretched and filthy character, a single room or hovel, being occupied by a whole family, and not unfrequently, in addition, by pigs, dogs, and poultry. In the sulphur mining districts of the interior there are great numbers of boys, from 10 to 15 years of age, employed; their habitations consist of holes excavated in the mountain sides, where they live and sleep in the most barbarous manner.

"The nature of the engagements of the working classes with their employers are various, according to the nature and character of the employment. In the various large cities and towns, similar arrangements exist between employers and employed as are usual throughout Europe, viz., payment at rates for day labour or task work as per agreement.

"At the best wine establishments of Marsala, where many hundreds of wine coopers, labourers, &c., are employed, the men are paid weekly, the labourers at their stipulated rate of wage, and the coopers in accordance with their task, work contracts.

"In the sulphur mining districts, the miners and others engaged in that source of wealth, are paid periodically under agreements and in accordance with the products of their operations; and at many of the larger mines, stores exist under the direction of the administration, where the persons employed are provided with oil, wine, bread, and other necessaries, under the 'tally' or 'truck' system.

"The rates of wages paid to the unskilled labourer vary in different parts of Sicily. In the interior and eastern parts of the island, from 1 franc to 1 franc 50 centimes per-day, and in the north from 1 franc 25 centimes to 1 franc 75 centimes, the working hours being from sunrise to sunset, with the exception of two hours at mid-day; and for boys and girls, from 50 to 75 centimes per day. These rates apply particularly to Public Works, as railway construction, road-making, &c., and for which rate they invariably work well and aptly.

"The labour market, generally, of Sicily is well supplied, and would at least be amply so for some time to come if the idle male population of the island could be induced to join the ranks of labour. From this defect alone is due the necessity for importation of Calabrese

labourers for the Public Works now in operation, and it is only in cases where special skilled labour is required that a necessity exists at present for the introduction of labour from without."

Another gentleman who is acquainted with the subject writes thus :—

"In almost no case does any long engagement exist between master and servant, averaging in general from one week to another.

"Since 1860 the pay of the working classes, mechanics, artisans, and field labourers, has fully doubled. A field labourer at present gains from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.* per day, and a skilled mechanic from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* per day. Few, however, enjoy the latter rate of pay, and 3*s.* per day may be taken as the average for a skilled labourer.

"Sicily is already too well supplied with labourers, and, with the exception of a few Calabrians who get employment on the railways in construction, and on the public roads in the interior of the island, Sicily presents no other opening."

As to the general wretchedness of the habitations of the working classes in Sicily all accounts agree. The only place in which they are said to be not utterly abominable is Messina. My own observation has been confined to Palermo and Catania, where I have shuddered at the sight of the lurid dens into which, as a rule, light and air can be admitted only by their doors opening upon the street.

The following estimate of the average rates of mechanics' wages for the whole of Italy has been given by one of the principal engineers of a railway company. It applies chiefly to men employed in railway workshops :—

Smiths, 3 francs to 5 francs.
Modellers, 3 francs 50 centimes.
Casters, 2 francs 50 centimes.
Fitters, 2 francs 50 centimes.
Turners, 3 francs 50 centimes.
Mounters, 2 francs 50 centimes.
Carpenters, 3 francs.
Painters, 3 francs.
Upholsterers (for railways) 2 francs 50 centimes.

The subjoined data are taken from a Report by Count

Finocchietti, on the furniture department of the Paris Universal Exhibition of 1867 :—

Leghorn.

Iron bed, &c., makers, 36; highest daily wages 3 francs.

Cabinet-makers, 40; highest daily wages 3 francs 20 centimes.

Carvers, 8; highest daily wages 3 francs.

Polishers, 7; highest daily wages 3 francs.

Boys, 29; highest daily wages 30 centimes.

Milan (City).

Carpenters, 120; highest wages—for ordinary furniture 2 francs; for billiard table making 3 francs 50 centimes.

Cabinet-makers, 39; highest wages 2 francs 50 centimes, and 3 francs.

Carvers, 23; highest wages 3 francs, 4 francs, and, for billiard tables, 5 francs.

Turners, 2; highest wages 2 francs 50 centimes.

Veneerers, 3; highest wages 3 francs.

Polishers, 13; highest wages 2 francs.

Smiths, 4; highest wages 2 francs 50 centimes.

Inlayers, 3; highest wages 2 francs 50 centimes, and, for billiard tables, 5 francs.

Brass-workers, 1; wages 2 francs 50 centimes.

Designers, 1; wages 2 francs.

Modellers, 1; wages 2 francs 25 centimes.

Gilders, 2; wages 2 francs and 3 francs.

Varnishers, 5; wages 2 francs.

Variously employed in making iron bedsteads, &c., 37; wages (highest) from 2 francs to 3 francs 40 centimes.

Paperhangings makers, 40; wages from 1 franc 50 centimes to 2 francs 50 centimes.

Sundry labourers; wages 2 francs and 2 francs 20 centimes.

Boys, 53; wages 30 centimes and 50 centimes.

Milan (Province).

Carpenters employed in making furniture, 25; wages 1 franc 30 centimes, 1 franc 40 centimes, and 1 franc 60 centimes.

Modellers, 50; highest wages 5 francs.
Chair-makers, 2; highest wages 2 francs.
Boys, 12; highest wages 25 centimes and 40 centimes.

Province of Brescia.

Carpenters, 38; highest wages 2 francs.
Carvers, 3; highest wages 3 francs 50 centimes.
Smiths, 2; highest wages 2 francs.
Polishers, 5; highest wages 2 francs.
Various workmen, 6; highest wages 1 franc 50 centimes.
Assistants, 15; highest wages 50 centimes.
Boys, 12; highest wages 50 centimes.

Province of Forli.

Workmen, 44; wages 1 franc to 5 francs.
Boys, 12; wages 8 centimes, 10 centimes, 16 centimes, 25 centimes, and 50 centimes.

Province of Naples.

Carvers, 15; highest wages 3 francs.
Inlayers, 54; highest wages 2 francs 50 centimes.
Gilders, 13; highest wages 5 francs.
Iron-workers, 42; highest wages 3 francs.
Cabinet-makers, 46; highest wages 2 francs.
Carpenters, 93; highest wages 3 francs.
Boys, 100; highest wages 30 centimes.

Province of Bari.

Workmen, 46; at wages varying from 1 franc 50 centimes to 4 francs.
Boys, 13; highest wages 45 centimes.

Province of Terra di Lavoro.

Adults, 447, of both sexes, employed at wages varying from 85 centimes to 2 francs 55 centimes.
Boys, 96; highest wages 43 centimes.

The principle of admitting the persons employed to some participation in the profits of their employers has been adopted with success by M. Cini, the owner of an extensive paper-mill in Tuscany. Ordinary hands were paid in 1869 at fixed rates, from 7 to 10 francs per week; and whenever the production of paper exceeded a certain

quantity they received an increase of wages in proportion to the excess. The fixed wages of foremen, superintendents, &c., were low—45 francs a month—but they had, besides, a share in the profits of the concern, in the prosperity of which they were thus directly interested. It may be calculated that, in this manner, foremen, &c., gained in all from 100 to 150 francs a month, and ordinary mill hands from 9 to 12 francs a week. Unskilled labourers were paid at the rate of 1 franc 15 centimes a day; women from 60 to 90 centimes; and children from 30 to 50 centimes a day.

The number of persons employed in this establishment varies from 350 to 400.

In Tuscany, as well as in most of the other parts of Italy, a considerable improvement is said to have taken place in the condition of the working classes within the last ten years. They are better clothed and fed. Their wages generally have risen greatly. For instance, a labourer who, ten years ago, earned 80 or 90 centimes, now (1869) gets 1 franc 25 centimes or 1 franc 50 centimes. In one not unimportant branch of industry, however—straw hat making—there has been a decline in wages, which are 10 per cent. lower than they were two or three years ago. Men employed in a straw hat manufactory receive from about 2 francs 50 centimes to 3 francs a day. A woman working at home may now earn 50 centimes a day. A few years ago she could earn 1 franc 50 centimes.

With regard to the houses or lodgings generally occupied by the artizan and industrial classes in Italy there is little to be added to what has been already stated. As a rule, such habitations are said to be very confined and wretched. In some of the large towns, as Florence, Milan, Genoa, Turin, Naples, Bologna, and Venice, improved dwellings for the working classes have been constructed recently, but in many cases—at Florence, Naples, and Milan particularly—they appear to be occupied, to a relatively small extent, by artizans or labouring people, the majority of their inhabitants being persons belonging to other categories.

As to the state of the labour market, it may safely be concluded that, although industrial enterprize has greatly increased and is increasing, it is not sufficient to give employment to the largely superabundant rural popula-

tion which is supposed to live by agriculture, and I think that only in a few places can there be any openings to a very limited extent for the introduction of labour from without.

Inclosure 2.

Further Report by Mr. Herries on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Italy.

In my previous Report on this subject I had the honour to state all the facts that I had been able to collect respecting the wages, mode of employment, and general condition of artizans in several of the towns of Italy.

My replies to the queries contained in the late Earl of Clarendon's Circular of June 7, 1870, concerning the purchase-power of money, climate, diet, clothing, rules for preservation of health, ventilation, drainage, miasmatic dirt, overcrowding, air poisoning, the quality of work, and the sentiments of the workmen, must be confined to the city of Florence. No general answer covering the whole kingdom could, with the least regard for truth, be given to any one of those questions; and as on matters of this kind no reliable information respecting a particular locality can be obtained elsewhere in Italy, it would be necessary, in order to procure materials for a complete Report, that I should visit every part of the country, and stay there long enough to become acquainted with its economical, meteorological, hygienical, and industrial conditions. But the length of time,—several years probably,—required for such a method of investigation renders it impracticable.

In the first place I am directed to give particulars in regard to the purchase-power of money in Italy as compared to England.

I regret that it is out of my power to do so.

An approximate estimate may, indeed, be formed of the purchase-power of money in the hands of an artizan at Florence. I can roughly calculate how far a given sum may go towards his maintenance; what articles habitually consumed by him he can buy with it; to what extent it will afford him food, clothing, and shelter; but

I do not possess, and have no means of obtaining corresponding data for England, or even for London alone; and the elements of comparison are, therefore, wanting.

The following statements of the present prices of the most ordinary articles of consumption; of the usual expenditure of working men; and of the rates of wages now prevailing, are, I believe, tolerably correct.

It would be mere waste of time to reduce the sums specified to British denominations, inasmuch as no fixed basis for the calculation exists. There cannot be par of exchange between London and Florence while at the latter place paper, the depreciation of which is variable, has a forced currency; and it seems useless to take the rate of exchange of to-day, for the conversion of the prices of beef, bacon, and beans into English pence and farthings, which will probably be no longer than equivalent at the rate of to-morrow. 26 francs 30 centimes for the 1*l.* sterling might perhaps be considered as a sort of average exchange at present, the oscillation having lately been from 26 francs 25 centimes to 26 francs 35 centimes; but it is quite possible that before this Report reaches London the usual rate of exchange may be very much higher than the latter, or very much lower then the former of those sums. A few years ago the exchange rose to 30 francs, and it has been below 26 francs for the 1*l.* sterling :—

Prices of Provisions.

	F.	c.
Beef, per Tuscan pound of 12 ounces, equal to 0·74865 lb. avoirdupois	0	50
Lamb, ditto	0 30 to 0	40
Bacon, ditto	0	80
Rice, ditto	0	22
Sausage (salame), ditto	1	0
Cheese, ditto	1	0
Bread, ditto	0	15
Beans, ditto	0	20
Stockfish, ditto	0	30
Maccaroni, ditto	0	25
Oil, ditto	0	60
Potatoes, ditto	0	7
Coffee, ditto	1	20
Sugar, ditto	0	42
Wine, per fiasco, containing nearly ½ gallon ..	0	80

AVERAGE Daily Consumption of a Single Working Man in Florence.

	F.	c.
Coffee and bread	0	60
Soup	0	10
Meat	0	40
Wine	0	50
Tobacco	0	7
Total	1	67

ESTIMATED Daily Expenses of a Mason or Bricklayer, his Wife, and one Child, when lodged, as is usual among the Masons, &c., who work at Florence, out of the Town.

	F.	c.
Meat	0	50
Paste (maccaroni, &c.)	0	25
Bread	0	50
Oil	0	15
Salt	0	5
Vegetables	0	10
Charcoal	0	15
Wine	0	50
Tobacco	0	7
	2	25
Rent	0	30
Total	2	55

ARTIZAN'S Clothing—Average Annual Outlay.

	Fr.
2 jackets, 1 for winter and 1 for summer ..	30
2 pairs of trousers	20
4 shirts	20
Shoes—1 pair 10 to 15 francs; soleing and repairing ditto, 3 to 5 francs ..	13 to 20
Stockings	5
1 Jersey	5
1 hat	6
Total	99 to 116

Rent.

A single room, with so-called furniture, is sometimes let by the month at a rate of from 10 to 15 francs. Usually, however, two, or three, or more rooms are let together unfurnished for a term of six months at the rate of about 50 francs per room, such apartments being

generally taken by associations of as many families or individuals as there are rooms.

Some large blocks of houses, comprising improved dwellings of various extent, which were intended for persons belonging to the working classes,—though, I believe, comparatively few artizans properly so called actually live in them,—have recently been constructed. In these buildings single rooms are let unfurnished from six months to six months, at the rate of 80 francs a year; the rent of one room and a kitchen is 120 francs, and that of an apartment of four rooms, including a kitchen, &c., on the ground floor, is 250 francs a year.

Daily Wages in some Trades.

	Highest.		Lowest.		Average.	
	F.	c.	F.	c.	F.	c.
Tailors	6	0	2	0	3	0
Shoemakers	3	0	..		2	50
Smiths	3	20	2	50	3	0
Carpenters	3	10	1	80	2	80
Masons or bricklayers	3	0	2	50	2	80
Glaziers	3	0	2	0	2	50
Bakers	5	0	2	50	3	0
					to 4	0
Mosaic-workers	4	0	5	50	3	50
Carvers	6	0	3	0	4	0
Upholsterers	4	0	2	0	2	50
Dyers	3	0	2	0	2	20
Plumbers	3	60	..		..	
House-painters, decorators, &c. ..	4	0	..		..	

Now, with regard to the purchase power of wages, I must observe that the rates of wages paid to all workmen in Florence could not be ascertained without the application of an extensive and elaborate machinery, such as is certainly not at my disposal. The inquiry would be almost as difficult an operation as that of taking a census of the population—a task which I could hardly be expected to accomplish in a satisfactory manner.

A supposed average rate would only be an imaginary sum, possibly never paid as actual wages to any living artizan. It is, therefore, necessary to fix upon some particular rate of wage, the purchase-power of which is to be calculated, and that of 3 francs a day, being

commonly paid in various branches of trade, may perhaps be taken as well as any other.

The question will then be, what can a working man receiving 3 francs per diem, or 18 francs a week, when no holidays occur, get for his money?

His weekly income will enable him to procure:—

36 Tuscan lbs. (1 lb. = 0·74865 lb. avoirdupois) of beef; or
120 lbs. of bread; or
18 lbs. of "salame" or sausage; or
22½ lbs. of bacon; or about
82 lbs. of rice; or
90 lbs. of beans; or
60 lbs. of stockfish; or
72 lbs. of maccaroni; or
30 lbs. of oil; or
257 lbs. of potatoes; or
15 lbs. of coffee; or
42½ lbs. of sugar; or about
11 gallons of wine; or
360 cigars; or
1 jacket and 6 lbs. of beef; or
1 pair of trousers, 1 hat, and 2 lbs. of sausage; or
3 shirts and 10 lbs. of beef; or
1 pair of shoes, 1 jersey, 4 lbs. of maccaroni, 6 lbs. of beans, and 2 quarts of wine; or
1 hat, 1 jersey, 1 shirt, 1 lb. of bacon, and 1 lb. of coffee; or
1 month's lodging, 1 shirt, and 6 lbs. of beef.

This is all that I can say as to the purchase-power of a working man's wages at Florence.

The hygienical questions contained in the Circular of June 7 having been submitted by me to the consideration of Dr. Wilson, an eminent British physician long resident at Florence, he has kindly favoured me with some valuable remarks upon them, which will be found below.

I cannot pretend to add anything to the information furnished by a person so much more competent to form a judgment on these matters than I am, and my replies to the queries addressed to me will merely express opinions founded on my personal experience and observation.

I am required to state "What is a safe diet for a stranger? what he should avoid in nature and amount, and what food can be procured? also what beverages will prove hurtful or needless?"

Now the only stranger at Florence concerning whose diet and its effects I feel warranted in making any

positive assertion is myself; and I can only say that I have not found it necessary to follow any special rules of diet in this place, those alimentary substances which seem to be wholesome in England appearing to me wholesome in Tuscany likewise. Thus, for instance, roast beef in moderation may be taken by the stranger with safety, and tea, eggs, and toast at breakfast do not, as a rule, prove injurious to his health. It is true, however, that the stranger of whom I am speaking requires a smaller quantity of food of all kinds—and particularly of meat and wine—in Florence than he does in England.

All articles of food can be procured by those who have the means of procuring them.

As to beverages, I would advise any one who is addicted to intoxication to modify his habits on coming to Florence. On the other hand, a stranger would, in my opinion, do well to abstain from constantly saturating himself, as many persons do, in summer with so-called cooling drinks, the effect of which is the perpetuation of raging thirst.

In reply to the question respecting the changes of clothing which are necessary in different seasons, I must observe that, to meet the atmospherical variations of this climate, a very extensive wardrobe, comprising garments of every imaginable variety of material, substance, texture, and form, is necessary.

Concerning "temperance in labour," and the "exertion or exhaustion he (the stranger) may venture upon without risk," I can have no hesitation in saying that, if he will adopt the habits of the native working men, who, as a rule, are very temperate in labour, he need apprehend no risk from over-exertion.

"Can a working man find healthy lodgings, and at what distance from his work? Can he possibly find dwelling-rooms ventilated, premises drained, free from miasmatic dirt, overcrowding, and air-poisoning?"

I have already stated that improved dwellings have lately been built, which might be, more generally than they are, occupied by working men. They are said to be tolerably healthy and well ventilated. Whether any dwelling-room is free or not free from overcrowding depends on the size of the room and the number of its

inmates. I do not know of how many persons will consist the family of the supposed working man in search of commodious lodgings. As to the distance of healthy lodgings from the work of the working men who may occupy them, I do not perceive how the question can be answered. It would not be easy to determine the topographical position of every spot where every working man now existing at Florence now habitually works, and to ascertain how far it is from any lodging that might be considered as healthy. But what I am called upon to do is much more difficult than this. The question relates not to present working men, but to those who may possibly come hereafter; and I am required to discover the future working place of a future working man without knowing—as I cannot know—what will be the nature of his work, or in what trade he will be engaged.

The dwelling-rooms usually inhabited by artizans at Florence are said to be for the most part excessively overcrowded, and are not free from dirt; but, on the other hand, their ventilation seems to be secured by the incomplete closing of doors and windows. Many working men—I believe the whole of the masons, bricklayers, &c.—have their lodgings without the limits of the city, frequently at the distance of some miles from it.

Here follow the remarks for which, as already mentioned, I am indebted to Dr. Wilson:—

"'What is a safe diet for a stranger?'

"The selection of an appropriate diet for a stranger migrating to a country differing in many essentials from that to which he has been all his life habituated, although rather difficult to define exactly, must depend on certain broad principles, such as—

"1. Individual peculiarity of the person migrating.

"2. The nature of the climate to which he migrates.

"3. The previous habits of the individual migrating.

"As individual peculiarity would only obtain in a large majority of the migrating class it deserves a very secondary consideration, and must remain more a question of personal discrimination or experience than one to which any definite solution could be offered. In fact, the individual so circumstanced must acquire for himself a knowledge as to what should be taken and what avoided from past experience at home.

"In a climate such as that of Italy, a certain change of diet at particular seasons of the year is indispensable for the due preservation of health, owing to the great change of temperature between the extremes of winter and summer. The foreigner not acclimatized requires an amount of animal food during the winter season which could be dispensed with by the native. Though the positive cold, as tested by the thermometer, would be lower in England than in Tuscany, the quality of the cold during the prevalence of the 'tramontano' is of so penetrating a character that a stranger would be unable to withstand it if only supplied with the same amount of animal food as would suffice for the natives. On the other hand, the heat of summer is not only excessive, but persistent, especially in the towns. During the whole of the winter months a liberal allowance of meat is essential for the preservation of health, the more so as good beer, one of the staple articles of diet in England, owing to its high price in Italy, is not within the reach of the labouring classes. As a principle, it may be admitted, perhaps, that the predominance of damp in England renders a larger consumption of meat and fatty food, as bacon, &c., with spirits, admissible than in dry climate of Italy. The Italian peasant, who rarely eats meat, supplies the deficiency of animal food by the liberal use of oil, beans, and such compounds as furnish matter for the development of heat. His diet consists of beans mixed with large quantities of olive oil, bread and wine. Without a liberal supply of beans and oil he would be unable to withstand the inclemency of the winter season, as has been amply proved by the deterioration of health among that class of the population in those years when these two articles have been deficient.

"The soundest advice to the stranger is to take, in winter, as much animal food as his purse can procure, but not to follow the example of the natives in the consumption of large quantities of oil and deleterious drinks.

"A Scotchman being in the habit of living much on oatmeal, and eating comparatively little animal food, would necessarily require less of it than the Englishman who is accustomed to eat copiously of meat at least once a-day.

"During summer farinaceous substances, cooked with fruit and vegetables, should be substituted in a great measure for meat.

"As regards clothing.

"As already observed, the climate of Italy is very variable, not only as regards extremes of temperature between winter and summer, but also as regards daily alternations. Inattention to this last circumstance is prolific in suffering to all classes of foreigners. The enormous difference in temperature in localities exposed to, or protected from, the sun's rays is much greater than strangers can have any conception of, and renders a corresponding protection or avoidance imperative. Strangers, on their first arrival expose themselves eagerly to the action of the sun, and, when heated, incautiously plunge into a dangerously diminished temperature. It is useless attempting to inculcate this on the lower classes. The best advice to them is, that they should provide themselves with woollen clothing both for summer and for winter wear, according to the requirements of the season, regulated by removal or addition of the upper clothing, but not by positive withdrawal of the woollen raiment, which should always be worn in contact with the skin, of thicker or thinner material, according to the season. Both in winter and in summer a flannel bandage should be worn round the loins and bowels as a protection against bowel complaints, &c.

"The quality of the air in Tuscany is so much more penetrating than in England that more clothing is necessary in winter, and, owing to the greater ranges of extreme temperature, greater change is required between the seasons.

"There is but little danger from exhaustion consequent on over-exertion from legitimate labour, the habits of the natives excluding all idea of risk from such a cause, and those habits are speedily acquired by new comers.

"I have repeatedly known evil results follow needless or unavoidable exposure in unhealthy localities among railway operatives, for instance, on the Maremma line. On a part of that line the men worked in gangs two hours at a time only per day on account of fever. In spite of all the care of the contractors, there was a loss of twenty-nine Englishmen in one month, not, however,

due to over exertion but only to reckless and unnecessary exposure to the evening air, coupled with intemperance.

"As former physician to a hospital in London, relieving from 30,000 to 40,000 patients yearly, I often met with disease resulting from over-work, either too prolonged or too severe. For many years I attended the Florence Hospital, but I do not think I ever met with a case of illness from a similar cause.

"Natives can expose themselves to causes of disease with impunity, where strangers would succumb. Foreign labourers quickly contract all the objectionable habits of their associates without acquiring their experience or any good qualities they may possess."

"What he should avoid in nature and amount, and what food can be procured."

"In the summer and autumn months large quantities of fruit should be eschewed. English labourers, following the example of the Italians, indulge to excess in melons and unripe fruit, producing violent bowel complaints.

"Beef, mutton, and other similar food can be easily procured; beef of excellent quality,* mutton from Pistoria and the Baths of Lucca also good; veal and lamb contain comparatively little nourishment. Pork is hazardous diet, being often diseased. Bacon after boiling appears to lose its injurious quality. Bread is excellent, better than in England. There is a great variety of pulse, such as lentils, lupins, and different sorts of beans, which are largely and advantageously used by the natives."

"What beverages will prove hurtful or needless?"

"New wine should be avoided. It is badly manufactured, the fermentation is always incomplete, and the wine itself is largely adulterated. It is extensively consumed when two months old, and though, perhaps, in its original state, not very palatable to strangers, acquires a pleasant flavour when made into negus. This com-

* A pound of beef in Italy does not contain the same amount of nourishment as in England, not so much on account of its quality being inferior as from the method of cooking. It is always baked—never roasted; and in the shops where the poorer classes eat it has generally undergone previous boiling to make soup.

pound is injurious in proportion to its improved taste, and the addition of spirits increases its noxiousness.

"The low price of spirits is necessarily in proportion to their destructive qualities. Fonsel oil is the noxious ingredient, which can only be eliminated by repeated distillation. In large quantities this would have a poisonous action *per se*. There are few countries where viler compounds are in daily use than in Tuscany.

"Formerly there was but a small consumption of spirits, but since the grape disease the natives have become spirit drinkers, beginning in the morning on an empty stomach. The English readily fall into these habits and suffer more in proportion than the natives. Bad as the spirit is to which they may have been accustomed in England it is infinitely worse here. There is a compound called Jamaica rum, costing half a franc a bottle, the price of which places it within the reach of all. It is composed of the worst kind of spirits, distilled from wood, potatoes, and damaged corn. The spirit thus obtained is mixed with treacle. The quantity made is enormous.

"The necessity of spirits is much less in Tuscany than in England, because the quality of the climate is more stimulating.

"Beer is the safest drink, but it is expensive. The common kind is imperfectly fermented and apt to produce diarrhœa in those who are not accustomed to it."

"Can a working man find healthy lodgings, and at what distance from his work? Can he possibly find dwelling-rooms ventilated, premises drained, free from miasmatic dirt, over-crowding, and air poisoning?"

Such dwellings may be found, but of course their vicinity to or distance from the man's work must depend on where he works.

At Florence, of late years, special houses have been constructed for the reception of the lower classes. These houses, having a large number of rooms under one roof, provide a healthier and better kind of dwelling than formerly existed. They are situated either in the city itself or in the immediate vicinity, but the supply is very inadequate to the demand. They are well arranged, drained, and ventilated. In the old houses, the drainage

is exceedingly defective, and this, together with the filthy habits of their inmates, would inevitably produce typhoid and other fevers were it not for the compulsory ventilation. Even in the better houses it is rare to find doors or windows that could by any possibility be rendered tolerably impervious to air. Fevers, such as are seen in large English cities, are exceedingly rare. For years there has not been a single epidemic of fever, nor have I once known any of such intensity as those which prevail in London, Liverpool, Edinburgh, or Glasgow. Cases of fever taken into the hospital are chiefly brought from the country, not that the the peasants' houses are less exposed to the external air than those in the town, but this is evidently owing to the use of sewage almost exclusively for manure. The whole country at certain seasons becomes pestiferous from this source, and only under such circumstances is excessive ventilation injurious.

"Another point to be noticed is, that the accumulation and retention of noxious emanations are prevented by the use of stone or brick instead of wooden floors, wainscoting, &c., as in England, which absorb poisonous gases or contagious principles."

I proceed to answer the questions under the third head of the Circular of June 7.

"What is the quality of the work executed by the workmen?"

The quality of certain kinds of work executed by some workmen is very good; that of other kinds of work executed by other workmen is very bad.

Skill is displayed in building, and whatever is of a decorative nature is generally well done, but most things required for the ordinary purposes of life are ill made.

"Are they generally competent in their several departments?"

In some departments they are generally competent; in other departments they are generally incompetent.

"Do the artizans take a pride in their work, and put their character into it?"

I cannot pretend to know with what feelings all the artizans of Florence contemplate their work; but I may

say that in my opinion many of them have no reason to be proud of it, and I hope their character is not always to be found in their work, which is often slovenly and feeble.

"Would they make a stand against doing bad work as they would against receiving bad wages?"

Some very conscientious workmen might perhaps assume such an attitude, but I greatly doubt whether their example would be generally followed.

"Are there any classes of artizans whose work can be depended upon as good from the sense of honour they have in executing it?"

I am loath to make sweeping assertions respecting the sense of honour prevailing in particular classes, believing as I do that in almost every class of persons there are individuals who have and individuals who have not a sense of honour.

"What influence has the skill and trustworthiness of the workmen in any department of industry exercised upon the rate of wages?"

In most departments of industry the rate of wages, if I am rightly informed, varies according to the skill and trustworthiness of the workman; but to what extent the general rate in any department may have been affected by the general reputation of the artizans employed I am unable to say.

I have not found it possible to put into a tabular form the statements and observations contained in this or in any previous Report.

In conclusion, I take the liberty of remarking that having never lived among artizans I can speak of their manners and customs only from hearsay. I am probably no better acquainted with the mode of existence of an average workman than an average workman is with mine; and I cannot help thinking that if an average workman were obliged to give an account of my habits, occupations, income, and expenditure, the statistics furnished by him would be strangely incorrect.

(Signed) EDWARD HERRIES.

Florence, December 1870.

BRINDISI.

Consul Grant to Earl Granville.—(*Received December* 14.)

My Lord, *Brindisi, November* 23, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt at this Consulate, during my late absence on leave, of Mr. Otway's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, inclosing copies of two Circular despatches addressed by your Lordship to Her Majesty's Representatives abroad, for Reports on the condition of the working classes in foreign countries, and expressing your Lordship's wish to receive information on the subject also from Her Majesty's Consulates.

The industrial class at this port is so small, and in such a backward state in every respect, that anything like a full Report respecting it would be totally uninteresting.

Instead, therefore, of making a regular Report, and a summary in the form annexed, to your Lordship's Circular, I have limited myself to giving only a summary of such information as may be sought after by English workmen, in the form prescribed by your Lordship, and I beg to transmit it herewith to your Lordship.

I have, &c.

(Signed) HENRY GRANT.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Grant on the Condition of the Industrial Classes at Brindisi.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

Labour.	Currency. Local. Lire c.	Lire c.	British. £ s. d.	£ s. d.	Purchase Power.
Carpenters .. per day	3 0 to	3 50	0 2 3¼ to	0 2 8	An English workman would have to spend about 14*l.* to live at Brindisi with the same comfort he would in England for 10*l.*
Shoemakers .. ,,	2 50	3 0	0 1 11½	0 2 3¼	
Masons .. .. ,,	2 50	4 0	0 1 11½	0 3 1	
Caulkers.. .. ,,	4 0	4 50	0 3 1	0 3 5½	
Coopers .. .. ,,	4 0	4 50	0 3 1	0 3 5½	
Blacksmiths .. ,,	4 0	5 0	0 3 1	0 3 10	
Silversmiths and goldsmiths .. ,,	3 0	4 0	0 2 3¼	0 3 1	
Tailors .. .. ,,	2 50	3 50	0 1 11½	0 2 3¼	
Watchmakers .. ,,	3 0	3 50	0 2 3¼	0 2 8	
Millers .. per month	180 0	200 0	6 18 5½	7 13 10	
Assistant ditto .. ,,	40 0	90 0	1 10 9	3 9 3	
Provisions.					
Wine .. .. per litre	0 20	0 40	0 0 1¾	0 0 3¾	
Beef (without bone) per kilo.	1 50		0 1 2		
Ditto (with bone) .. ,,	1 30		0 1 0		
Mutton .. .. ,,	1 0		0 0 9		
Lamb .. .. ,,	0 80		0 0 7¼		
Turkey .. .. ,,	1 60		0 1 3		
Fowls .. .. each	1 25	2 0	0 0 9¾	0 1 6¾	
Eggs .. .. ,,	0 5	0 10	0 0 0½	0 0 1	
Flour .. .. per kilo.	0 50	0 60	0 0 4½	0 0 5½	
Butter .. .. ,,	3 50		0 2 8¼		
Cheese .. .. ,,	2 0	3 50	0 1 6¼	0 2 8¼	
Sugar .. .. ,,	1 40		0 1 1		
Lard .. .. ,,	2 20		0 1 8¾	0 2 3¾	
Coffee .. .. ,,	2 20	3 0	0 1 8¼		
Bread .. .. ,,	0 32	0 45	0 0 3	0 0 4	

N.B.—1 kilogramme equal to 2 lbs. 3 oz. 4·4383 drams avoirdupois.
1 litre equal to 1·76077339525 imperial pint.
Exchange, 26 Italian lire per 1*l.* sterling.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The articles of food procurable are those specified in the preceding list of prices. Meat, especially beef, is generally very good.

Wine of the country is good and very cheap.

The diet best calculated to combat the marsh fever, which prevails at this port, is roast meat, fish occasionally, a very moderate quantity of vegetables, and plenty of wine. Black coffee in the morning is recommended, as is also a moderate use of brandy or rum, and bitters. Maccaroni, fruit, and water, should as a rule be avoided.

Clothing.—Woollen vests should be worn next the skin all the year round. Warm clothing is required in winter, and light in summer. Exposure to night air should be avoided.

Lodging.—It is difficult to procure healthy lodgings. Those of native workmen are generally on the ground floor; they are damp and badly ventilated, and not well drained. They consist of from one to three rooms. Rent ranges from 100 to 150 francs per annum.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The quality of the work is of a very inferior kind. With perhaps the exception of stonemasons, I should say that workmen at this port are incompetent in their several departments.

There is no demand for solid and finished workmanship, and for the present there is no opening for the introduction of labour from without.

Remarks.

Brindisi has 10,000 inhabitants, of whom about 1,000 are artizans.

A workmen's club or association, called "Società Operaja," was formed last year; it is composed of 150 members.

As far as I am able to judge, they seem as yet more bent upon acquiring political influence than upon improving themselves or aiding each other.

(Signed) HENRY GRANT.

Brindisi, November 23, 1870.

MESSINA.

Vice-Consul Rickards to Earl Granville.—(Received November 9.)

My Lord, *Messina, October* 24, 1870.

WITH reference to your Lordship's directions, conveyed in Mr. Otway's Circular of the 7th of June, 1870, to report on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries, I have the honour to state that the purchase power of money in Messina is, in my opinion, very nearly what it is in England, some things being dearer and others cheaper. For instance, house rent, clothes, physicians, medicines, being cheaper, whilst living, supposing the English artizan would continue the same diet as at home, would be dearer. The average wages of a carpenter's man would be about 3 francs 40 centimes (2*s.* 8*d.*) per day, an ironsmith 4 to 5 francs (3*s.* 4*d.* to 4*s.*) per day, and a mason 3 francs 40 centimes to 4 francs (2*s.* 8*d.* to 3*s.* 4*d.*) per day. As regards lodgings, they would be found quite close to his work, but as a general rule, with very few exceptions indeed, they are unhealthy, close, ill-drained, or not drained at all, and not free from filth and overcrowding. In fact, it is much to be wondered at that we hear so few cases of typhus and other fevers; this, I think, is attributable to the magnificent situation of Messina, rather than to any attempt on the part of the authorities to remedy this evil.

The quality of the work executed by workmen is fair; they would, however, not make a stand against doing bad work as they would against receiving bad wages.

Regarding the sense of honour that workmen have, I should say they possess it in a very minute degree, if at all, and as a general rule they take no pride whatever in their work.

I have, &c.

(Signed) JOSEPH RICKARDS.

NAPLES.

Consul-General Bonham to Earl Granville.—(Received December 12.)

My Lord, *Naples, December 3, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Circular dated 7th June, 1870.

I herewith inclose a Report on the condition of the working classes in Naples.

I have, &c.

(Signed) EDW. WALTER BONHAM.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul-General Bonham on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Naples.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.								Purchase Power.
	Local.				British.				
	Per day.				Per day.				
LABOUR.	L.	c.	L.	c.	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	
Blacksmiths ..	2	0 to	3	0	1	6½ to	2	2¾	The common necessaries of life are as cheap, or cheaper, here than in England, but once passing the line of actual necessaries, the difference is the other way. I should say that purchase power is as 10 here to 8 in England; that is to say, that a man with a family would live as well on 7*l.* to 8*l.* a-month in England as on 10*l.* here.
Carpenters ..	2	0	4	0	1	6½	3	1	
Ironfounders ..	2	0	4	0	1	6½	3	1	
Brassfounders ..	2	0	3	0	1	6½	2	3¾	
Labourers ..	2	0			1	6½			
Masons ..	2	50			1	11			
Coppersmiths ..	3	0	4	0	2	3¾	3	1	
Fitters ..	2	0	4	0	1	6½	3	1	
Turners ..	2	0	4	0	1	6½	3	1	
Boilermakers ..	2	0	3	0	1	6½	2	3¾	
Shipwrights ..	4	0	5	0	3	1	3	10¼	
Caulkers ..	4	0	5	0	3	2	3	10¼	
Coopers ..	2	0	3	0	1	6½	2	3¾	
Goldsmiths ..	3	0	5	0	2	3¾	3	10¼	
Engravers ..	2	0	3	0	1	6½	2	3¾	
Gunmakers ..	3	0	4	0	2	3¾	3	1	
Watchmakers ..	3	0	5	0	2	3¾	3	10¼	
Tailors ..	2	50	3	0	1	11	2	3¾	
Shoemakers ..	2	50	3	0	1	11	2	3¾	
Glovemakers ..	2	50	3	0	1	11	2	3¾	
Painters ..	2	0	3	0	1	6½	2	3¾	

Provisions.	Currency. Local. Per kilo.	Currency. British. Per lb. avoirdps.	Purchase Power.
Beef.. ..	1 70 to 1 90	0 7 0 $7\frac{3}{4}$	
Mutton ..	0 85	0 $3\frac{1}{2}$	
Pork.. ..	1 10	0 $4\frac{1}{2}$	
Salt fish ..	0 80	0 $3\frac{1}{4}$	
Fruit and vegetables ..	0 10 0 40	0 $0\frac{3}{8}$ 0 $1\frac{1}{2}$	
Bread ..	0 25 0 42	0 1 0 $1\frac{3}{4}$	
Butter ..	3 15 3 50	1 1 1 $2\frac{1}{2}$	
Cheese ..	2 25 3 0	0 $9\frac{1}{4}$ 1 $0\frac{1}{2}$	
Sugar ..	1 25 1 50	0 $5\frac{1}{4}$ 0 $6\frac{1}{4}$	
Coffee ..	2 30 3 50	0 $9\frac{1}{2}$ 1 $2\frac{1}{2}$	
Lard.. ..	1 60 1 70	0 $6\frac{1}{2}$ 0 7	
	Per litre.	Per quart.	
Wine ..	0 20 0 60	0 $2\frac{1}{4}$ 0 $5\frac{1}{2}$	
Olive oil ..	1 35 1 45	1 2 1 3	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The labouring classes in this country eat very little animal food, living principally upon pasta (maccaroni in various forms), bread, fruit, and vegetables. A foreigner requires more substantial food, and would find the small sum which suffices to feed a native insufficient. The above-mentioned necessaries, which form the general subsistence of the Neapolitan working classes, are very cheap, and though wages are low, they are able to obtain a sufficiency of them. Cheap and wholesome wine can be obtained; spirits are little used, and should be avoided. The style of expenditure for an artizan earning 2 to 3 francs a-day may be taken to be—for breakfast, cup of coffee and bread, 15 centimes (about $1\frac{1}{2}d.$); mid-day, some bread and fruit and a glass of wine, about 20 to 25 centimes (2*d.* to $2\frac{1}{2}d.$); evening meal, pasta and vegetables, with wine, and occasionally a little salt fish; once a-week at the utmost, if at all, meat, 30 to 40 centimes (3*d.* to 4*d.*). On wages of 2 centimes 50 francs a-day an artizan can support himself, wife, and one or two children. For an Englishman, it is necessary that he should avoid excess in fruit, and abstain from ardent spirits; as a beverage, nothing can be recommended so good as the

common wine of the country when taken in moderation; it is cheap, nourishing, and adapted to the climate; he will require his usual quantity of animal food. As to the exertion or exhaustion he may venture upon, during nine months of the year he may do nearly as much work as in England; during the other three months, viz., June, July, and August, he must endeavour to work in the shade, as exposure to the sun is to be avoided. General experience would also suggest a careful avoidance of chills, which are very dangerous, frequently resulting in fever.

Clothing.—Cold is never severe, and the expenditure for clothing is, consequently, less than in England. No special directions can be given in regard to clothing, further than as changes in temperature are apt to arise suddenly, especially in spring and autumn, it is desirable that woollens should always be worn, with the view of avoiding chills. I may add that the climate generally is trying, especially for children.

Lodgings.—A working-man in Naples cannot find healthy lodgings near his work. The ordinary lodgings inhabited by the working classes, called "bassi," are damp, overcrowded, unventilated, and in every respect filthy. The cost of a lodging in one of these bassi is from 6 lires 25 centimes to 12 lires 50 centimes (5*s.* to 10*s.*) a-month; tolerable lodgings are expensive, and quite beyond the means of an artizan. A great number of workmen reside with their families in villages outside the city and Octroi limits, many as far distant as Torre del Greco, about eight miles from Naples. In these villages lodgings are cheaper and better, and food also cheaper; men living at Torre del Greco pay 30 to 50 centimes (3*d.* to 5*d.*) per day, according as they stand or sit, for the journey to and fro in a corricolo, a kind of high two-wheeled carriage or gig, in which a few sitting, the others standing, from fifteen to eighteen, or even twenty men contrive to cluster. The railway runs to Torre del Greco, charges 30 centimes (3*d.*) the single journey fourth class, or 65 centimes (6½*d.*) the double journey third class; but the hours do not suit, and the old-fashioned corricolo is still the ordinary method of locomotion for these working-men.

III.—*Quality of the Work.*

This depends mainly on the amount of supervision. The Neapolitan workmen are clever and competent in their various departments, but are not fond of trouble; and as a rule it cannot be said they take pride in their work, or put their character into it. They certainly would make no stand against bad work, as they would against bad wages; in fact, so long as they get their week's wages they little care in what manner their work is done. I do not hear of any class of artizan whose work could be depended upon, unless carefully and constantly overlooked, except, perhaps, decorative painters and first-class plasterers for stucco-work. These works having somewhat of an artistic character the workmen generally take trouble, and have pride in their superior execution. Work is paid either by the day or by the job. In the following trades, viz., tailors, shoemakers, glovemakers, and hatmakers, it is, with rare exceptions, by the job; in all other trades by the day. The period of work is usually ten hours a-day, but ordinary labourers, bricklayers, masons, carpenters, and some others, often work twelve hours.

Brief Summary of Remarks.

1. The average wage of a good first-class mechanic here is from 2 to 3 francs a-day, which I apprehend would be equal to that of a second or third-class workman in England.

2. An Englishman cannot live in Naples on the same money that a native does, as the diet of the latter differs so much from that of the former in quality, and consequently in cost.

3. Employers of labour here are not inclined to give much more to English artizans than to natives; many have come out, but all, with few if any exceptions, have gone home again, not finding the wages sufficient for their requirements.

4. In a few special employments, such as engineers in steam-vessels, directors of cotton factories, and perhaps a few others, Englishmen appear to get on; but considering the price of lodgings, and of various home

comforts, such as tea, &c., almost necessaries to an Englishman, I have no doubt that the estimate is about correct, viz., that 20*l.* a-month would not be worth more in purchase-power here than 15*l.* in England.

5. Much is done to raise the condition of the labouring classes; there are day and night schools for workingmen, technical schools and schools of design, all gratuitous; also savings banks and mutual aid societies in existence in this city.

(Signed) EDW. WALTER BONHAM.

Naples, November 29, 1870.

PIEDMONT AND LOMBARDY.

Consul Colnaghi to Earl Granville.—(*Received March* 8.)

My Lord, *Turin, March* 4, 1871.

I HAVE the honour to forward to your Lordship, herewith inclosed, a Report on the Industrial Classes in Piedmont and Lombardy, required by the Earl of Clarendon's Circular of the 7th of June, 1870.

I have, &c.

(Signed) DOMINIC ELLIS COLNAGHI.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Colnaghi on the Artizan and Industrial Classes in Piedmont and Lombardy.

"IT is difficult to give an account of the working classes in Italy; the data which, if collected, could not easily be marshalled in proper order, have still to be gathered, and for this, time and great labour are required. From the strange varieties of natural characteristics and material condition displayed in the different parts of the country, a complex idea of the economical physiognomy of its inhabitants cannot be obtained. For if in the hundred cities of Italy the political aspiration is the same, the traditions, the habits, the wants, the climate, and the products are all different. Yesterday the country was divided, and as yet its Government and social economy are in a state of transition."*

The foregoing paragraph, from the pen of a writer who has studied the subject, may serve partially to account for some of the unavoidable deficiencies in the present Report. What is true of Italy generally is applicable in a minor degree to each of its parts, and the variations from commune to commune are often as unexpected as from province to province. In a rapid sketch, such as I have alone attempted here, it is not easy at all times to attain the happy mean free from statements either above or below the truth; but, indeed, the real condition of the country cannot be fully known until the great movement which blossomed in 1848 shall have arrived at perfect fruition, and the Italians have taken their proper place in Europe as a free, united, and industrious nation.

* E. Fano. "Della Carità Preventiva e dell' Ordinamento delle Società di Mutuo Soccorso in Italia." Milano, 1869. Pp. 84, 85.

Population.

(Table 1.)—SHOWING the Number of Provinces and Superficial Area of Piedmont and Lombardy, together with the General Population of these Regions, according to the Census of December 31, 1861, as compared with the whole Kingdom.

Region.	Number of Provinces.	Superficial Area in Square Kilomètres.	Approximate Proportion between Mountain and Plain Land.		Population, December 31, 1861.		
			Mountain.	Plain.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Piedmont	4	29,004·11	0·774	0·226	2,764,263	1,378,389	1,385,874
Lombardy	7	22,286·78	0·467	0·533	3,104,838	1,574,029	1,530,809
Mantua, annexed 1866 ..	1	1,091·96	..	..	154,800	..	..
Total	12	52,382·85	..	..	6,02390 1	..	..
Kingdom of Italy .	68	284,463·92	..	..	24,270,809	..	..

S 2

In both Piedmont and Lombardy agriculture forms the principal occupation of the people, but no strict line can be drawn between the agricultural and industrial classes, which blend into each other in the several districts, as the necessities of the first compel them to other work than the cultivation of the soil. Among the chief industries of North Italy are silk-reeling and throwing, which employ a large contingent of female labour. The woollen factories of the Biellese (Piedmont) are of considerable importance, and promise a still further development, while manufacturers of cotton, flax, and hemp, are extending in the various provinces of both regions.

These industries are not all gathered in the towns. Fed by mountain streams, supplying the place of coal, they are to be found nestling in picturesque valleys, to which, though thus becoming the centres of manufacturing industry, the freshness of country life and of rural associations yet clings.

The mechanical arts, if we except the manufactory of arms at Brescia and the Royal Arsenal at Turin, are in partial abeyance; but they are springing into new life with the requirements of modern times. Iron-foundries are beginning to assume a certain importance, agricultural machines are being made, and the cutlery of Biella gives promise of future excellence.

Special trades are exercised by the inhabitants of the different districts. In Piedmont, for example, masons and house painters are generally natives of the hills of the Biellese; the district of the Canavesan supplies brickmakers; the neighbourhood of Pignerol, hawkers; the inhabitants of the Vaudois valleys emigrate as servants; umbrella makers come from the hills about the Lago Maggiore; and the Province of Alessandria is said to furnish a contingent of professional beggars.

In Lombardy the masons of the mountainous districts of Como are known throughout Europe; the territory of Bergamo supplied Genoa and Leghorn with the bands of porters, whose corporations have only lately been dissolved; innkeepers and coffee-house keepers are frequently natives of the two provinces above-named, while other districts are nurseries for the workmen of various trades.

The following Table gives the total population of Piedmont and Lombardy on the 31st of December, 1861, classed according to their different occupations :—*

(Table 2.)—SHOWING the Total Population of Piedmont and Lombardy, on the 31st December, 1861, classed according to their several Professions.

Trades and Occupations.	Piedmont.					Lombardy.				
	Population.			Heads of Families.	Not Heads of Families.	Population.			Heads of Families.	Not Heads of Families.
	Total.	Males.	Females.			Total.	Males.	Females.		
1. Agricultural industry ..	1,116,907	613,190	503,717	357,615	759,292	1,086,028	670,481	415,547	322,794	763,234
2. Mining industry	5,741	5,586	155	3,211	2,530	5,959	5,825	134	2,822	3,137
3. Manufacturing industry ..	253,318	166,761	86,557	100,588	152,730	459,044	231,910	227,134	134,809	324,235
4. Commercial industry ..	64,654	52,171	12,483	38,687	25,967	103,543	87,722	15,821	56,664	46,879
5. Liberal professions ..	120,366	78,083	42,283	15,424	104,942	95,702	64,899	30,803	17,102	78,600
6. Clergy	12,120	9,807	2,313	5,631	6,489	11,969	9,968	2,001	6,929	5,040
7. Public administration ..	15,514	15,086	428	11,068	4,446	16,298	14,914	1,384	11,347	4,951
8. Public safety (interior and exterior)	42,519	42,499	20	3,610	38,909	40,929	40,926	3	1,588	39,341
9. Persons of independent means	42,968	26,259	16,709	24,071	18,897	53,495	28,334	25,161	23,360	30,135
10. Domestic servants ..	65,408	20,426	44,982	7,443	57,965	65,030	23,423	41,607	10,757	54,273
11. Poor	30,062	13,405	16,657	5,272	24,790	51,942	21,585	30,357	5,040	46,902
12. Without professions (chiefly young children and women)	994,686	335,116	659,570	25,367	969,319	1,114,899	374,042	740,857	25,580	1,089,319
Total	2,764,263	1,378,389	1,385,874	597,987	2,166,276	3,104,838	1,574,029	1,530,809	618,792	2,486,046

* "Statistica del Regno d'Italia. Popolazione. Censimento Generale del 31 Dicembre, 1861." Vol. iii. Firenze, 1866.

In Piedmont, out of a total population of 2,764,263 souls, the number of persons forming the artizan class (manufacturing industry) amounts to 253,318, of whom 166,761 are males, and 86,537 females. The trades or arts of weavers, tailors, embroiderers, milliners, and the like, occupy more women than men, though in very varied proportions. Females are also chiefly employed in the silk and cotton mills. In other trades in general the men greatly predominate.

In Lombardy the artizan class numbers 459,044 souls (231,910 males and 227,134 females) out of a total population of 3,104,838 individuals.

The above calculations I would take as an approximative rather than an exact statement of the number of the artizan class. The subjoined Table notes the proportion per cent. in Piedmont and Lombardy of the persons of this class (manufacturing industry) who are engaged in some of the principal trades.

(Table 3.)

Trades.	Proportion per Cent in—	
	Piedmont.	Lombardy.
Tailors	12·03	7·49
Boot and shoemakers	8·42	5·77
Masons	8·55	5·99
Carpenters	6·94	6·36
Blacksmiths..	0·45	0·49
Bakers	5·09	3·73
Coachmakers	0·30	0·27
Armourers	0·26	0·44
Saddlers	1·30	1·53
Other trades	56·66	68·02

The remainder of the industrial classes are to be met with under headings 2 and 4 (mining and commercial industry), which, together, number as follows :—

For Piedmont	70,395
Lombardy	109,502
	179,897

In Piedmont, moreover, there are above 100,000 labourers and workpeople of no settled profession, in

part, perhaps, included under heading 1*, who hover on the confines of agriculture and industry, to some extent belonging to both classes, and who should not be omitted from mention here. The same class of labourers is doubtless to be found in Lombardy, but I have no means of even approximatively ascertaining their numbers.

I make no reference to persons wholly engaged in agriculture, a class outside my present subject.

To the kindness of Signor Martinetti, Secretary of the Turin Artizans' General Association, I am indebted for the following Table IV., which may not be without interest, as marking the industries to which the inhabitants of this city have chiefly turned their attention.

(Table 4.)—SHOWING the Arts or Trades into which the Artizans of Turin are divided.

[The following calculations should be taken as approximative only.]

No.	Arts or Trades.	Total Numbers.	Per Cent. of Artizan Population.
	MALES.		
1	Tailors	2,600	10·00
2	Furniture makers and the like, including carpenters	3,520	13·54
3	Locksmiths, nailmakers, &c.	2,600	10·00
4	Swordmakers and armourers	739	2·84
5	Mechanics and turners in iron ..	960	3·69
6	Coppersmiths, tinmen, bellhangers ..	451	1·73
7	Saddlers	474	1·82
8	Curriers, dressers, and tanners ..	680	2·61
9	Metal founders	735	2·82
10	Furriers and glovemakers	172	0·66
11	Coach and cartbuilders	380	1·46
12	Printers	1,110	4·27
13	Bookbinders, cardboard-box makers ..	455	1·75
14	Hat and capmakers	430	1·65
15	Braid, fringe, and lacemakers	190	0·73
16	Lithographers and the like	350	1·34
17	Basket-makers	180	0·69
18	Gunpowder and firework-makers ..	60	0·23
19	Ropemakers	77	0·28
20	Braziers and pewterers	238	0·91
21	Upholsterers and mattrass makers ..	550	2·11

* Agricultural Industry, Table 2.

No.	Arts or Trades.	Total Numbers.	Per Cent. of Artizan Population.
22	Candle makers and workers in wax ..	80	0·30
23	Cabinetmakers and wood carvers ..	330	1·26
24	Marble and stonecutters	190	0·73
25	Whitewashers and plasterers	90	0·34
26	Silk and velvet weavers, &c.	600	2·30
27	Coopers	75	0·28
28	Umbrella-makers	130	0·50
29	Watchmakers	240	0·92
30	Organ and harmonium makers ..	350	1·34
31	Optical instrument makers	20	0·0077
32	Glaziers and looking-glass makers ..	150	0·57
33	Cutlers	120	3·46
34	Farriers	80	0·30
35	Plumbers	40	0·015
36	Workers in porcelain manufactories ..	120	0·46
37	Chemical products	90	0·34
38	Potters and stovemakers	140	0·50
39	Silk dyers	190	0·73
40	Goldsmiths, engravers, jewellers ..	560	2·11
41	Goldbeaters, gilders, varnishers ..	486	1·86
42	Paviers	70	0·26
43	Masons (permanent)	1,450	5·57
44	Boot and shoemakers	3,210	12·34
45	Lucifer match makers	180	0·69
46	Bleachers and cleaners	60	0·23
	Total	26,002	
	FEMALES.		
1	Tailors	6,108	32·13
2	Needlewomen in general	9,600	50·53
3	Milliners and the like	382	2·01
4	Furriers and glovemakers	250	1·32
5	Trimming makers	490	2·58
6	Silk spinners, reelers, and weavers ..	1,472	7·75
7	Upholsterers	190	1·00
8	Umbrella makers	120	0·63
9	Weavers in hemp and cotton	280	1·47
10	Workers in porcelain manufactories and colorists	70 40	0·36 0·21
	Total	19,002	

Estimated population of Turin in 1868 ..	191,500
Male artizans	26,002
Female ditto..	19,002
	45,004

Character.—The inhabitants of Piedmont and Lombardy form the sinews of united Italy. Brave and energetic, they possess the qualities attributed to more northern races, while in Lombardy, at least, some of the graces of the south are not wanting. Both regions produce excellent soldiers. The Piedmontese, from their princes downwards, are distinctly a military people, while the valour of the Lombards was widely displayed in the wars of the first French Empire. In good looks the Lombard women have decidedly the advantage over their sisters on this side the Ticino.

A local writer* has catalogued the characteristics of the various inhabitants of Piedmont as follows:—The pacific Valdostano, the prudent Ossolano, the industrious Biellese, the acute and subtle Canevesan, the speculative Novarese, the courageous Astigians, the energetic Piedmontese (referring to the central districts of the country), and the untiring Monferrino. So in Lombardy each district throws its special quality into the stock which forms the whole people.

The artizans of Piedmont and Lombardy in general are intelligent and industrious, frugal in their food, and sober while at work. On Sundays and holidays, however, including St. Monday, to whom much reverence is paid, they too often spend, in drinking bouts over games of bowls, the larger portion of their earnings.

In Piedmont this love of the bottle, recognized in the type of the country "Gianduja," or John of the Jug, while more noticeable in some districts than in others, is prominent among the working classes of Turin. When the wine is in the knife comes out; and in this city, which boasts of being the most civilized in Italy, every Sunday and holiday is marked in blood, usually shed in drunken brawls. The bodies of casual passers by would appear, however, to be occasionally used as a convenient sheath for the steel of some more humorous "Barabba," as the younger roughs, who at times add highway robbery to stabbing, are not inappropriately called. These last, however, must not be confounded with the real working men, for whom, indeed, they could never be mistaken, if the artizans did not sometimes affect their manners.

* Quoted by De Bartolomeis. "Notizie Topografiche e Statistiche sugli Stati Sardi." Torino, 1840. Vol. i, p. 273.

The Piedmontese are not bloodthirsty withal. The chief evil arises from the ready knife, which, under a lax system of administration, is still generally worn. With patient firmness this custom could be successfully put down, as it was by the French during their occupation of the country in the early part of this century. A great danger to Italy in the present day shown here, as elsewhere, lies in the apathy of the great body of the people to what is going on before their eyes, added to an overstrained sensibility which, shocked at the punishment of an arrested murderer, is callous to the groans of his victim. A reaction, moreover, such as has at present set in against the old system of paternal Government, is but too naturally apt to confound license with liberty.

At Milan, though perhaps the Lombards are in general less inclined to the bottle than the Piedmontese, considerable proficiency has, I believe, been attained in the art of drinking, and the shouts of belated revellers are so loud and constant as materially to interfere with the slumbers of the more peaceable inhabitants.

The character for economy of the industrial classes differs in the various districts, and according to their means. At Turin the wages of the artizans in general suffice to enable them to maintain their families decently and without too many privations. The savings of the best and most economical workmen, if married men, can, however, only be on a small scale. The establishment of Benefit Societies, if they do not change into Trades' Unions, will doubtless have an extended influence for good on this head.

The State lotteries, which the Government have not yet found it convenient to abolish, are no incentives to economy. In 1868 the gross revenue derived from the lotteries for the whole Kingdon amounted to 60,306,814 Italian lire 50 centimes. After deducting, however, the sums paid for prizes and other expenses, the net profits to the State were only 24,168,849 lire 50 centimes. At Milan there was an increase in the stakes over the previous year of 437,000 lire; at Turin of 988,000 lire.

The artizans, in the country districts, usually marry at from 20 to 25 years of age, and are said to have large families. The earlier marriages depend upon the number drawn by the young men in the conscription. The workmen of Turin, as a rule, marry at between 24 and

30 years of age; four children are the average number for each family. The married women, when their condition permits, attend to their household duties early in the morning to enable them to obtain employment at the various factories and workshops established in or around the city, and thus add to their scanty resources.

It would be impossible to describe the condition of the working classes in North Italy in a few sentences. It differs widely from district to district, but, on the whole, may be considered as tolerable, and it is to be hoped will improve with the progress of the country. The condition of the factory hands, however, both at Biella and Intra, is not noted in altogether favourable colours. The workmen of Turin have, no doubt, suffered considerably through the transfer of the capital to Florence, but more, perhaps, owing to the improvident habits which they had contracted from former constant work than from other causes.

In the mining district of Val Ossola, the living of the native miner does not differ from that of the ordinary labourer throughout Italy. He is contented with his polenta for breakfast and supper, a portion of cheese, and occasionally a "minestra" or (lard) soup, for all of which about 80 centimes a-day may be calculated; clothing from 10 to 15 centimes; lodging is usually given at the mine by the employer. About 1 lira a-day may, therefore, be put down as the cost of the living of a single person in this district.

It should be remembered that Italians are much more easily contented than English workmen, and that with what the former could live well the latter would be dissatisfied. In all comparisons of the cost of living in the two countries this element of the national characters must be kept in view.

As to the quality of the work performed by the artizans of North Italy the best workmen, I am told, are not inferior to Englishmen, and wherever taste and ingenuity are concerned they stand in the first rank. The chief defect of their work lies in a certain want of finish, which often takes off from the effect of otherwise successful efforts.

In the higher branches of each art the artizans take pride in their work, enter keenly into its artistic qualities, and strive to do their best, but, as a rule, ordinary

Italian workmen are said to require more supervision than Englishmen, or, in other words, are less conscientious.

I do not think it probable that the average workman would make any stand against doing bad work, especially if by working ill he could save himself trouble. Certainly any stand that might be made would not be of the same strength as against receiving bad wages.

The skill and trustworthiness of workmen must naturally exercise an influence on the rates of wages, which in Turin is said to equal an increase of a good third. I have, however, no statistics on which to base any observations on this head.

The following Tables show the ordinary rates of wages in the various crafts in Piedmont and Lombardy. They are not so complete as I could wish, but have been compiled for the most part from original sources.* Where possible, the increase of pay during the last twenty years, which in general seems to vary between 10 and 25 per cent., has been added.

* For Lombardy the wages paid to the operatives in the different factories, and in one or two trades, are based on the rates quoted in Frattini's "Storia della Industria Manufatturiera in Lombardia. Milano, 1865." The absolute figures are the same, but their value in Italian lire of 100 centimes as against Austrian lire (equalling about 85 Italian centimes) shows the rise that, I am informed, has taken place since M. Frattini's work was published.

(Table 5.)—SHOWING the Average Rates of Wages in some of the Principal Trades and Industries in Piedmont.

Province.	Place.	Trades or Industries.	Average Wages in Italian Lire.					Average Hours of Work.	Wages, when usually Paid.	Employment. Whether Constant.	Increase of Wages during the last 20 Years.	Remarks.
				L. c.		L. c.	L. c.					
Turin ...	Turin* ...	Building Trade, &c.—										
		Brickburners	Per diem ...	3 0		5 0	...	9½ to 10½ hours ...	Weekly ..	Constant, but less in winter	20 per cent.	
		Brickmakers	„ ...	1 75		2 0	2 50	Daybreak to sunset, less time for three meals	By the job .	From April 1 to September 15	Not risen ...	Rough lodging given.
		Carpenters (house) and sawyers	„ ...	2 25		2 50	3 0	12 hours in summer, 7 or 8 in winter	Weekly ...	Constant, 7 months: limited, 5 months	10 per cent.	
		Carpenters and joiners ...	„ ...	1 75		2 0	2 50	10½ to 11 hours ...	Ditto ...	Constant	Ditto.	
		Cabinetmakers	„ ...	2 50		2 80	3 50	Ditto	Ditto ...	Ditto	...	
		Gasfitters, brassfitters, &c.	„ ...	2 50		3 0	3 50	12 hours	Fortnightly.	Ditto	15 per cent.	
		Masons and bricklayers—						Fixed by Committee of Master Masons, 18 and 21 Aug., 1860. May, June, July, and Aug. from 5 A.M. to 7 P.M., with rest from 7 to 7·30 A.M., and from 12 to 2 P.M.; in April and Sept., from sunrise to dark, with same rest; in other months, from sunrise to dark, but with rest only from 12 to 1·30 P.M.				
		Summer	„ ...	2 25		2 75	...		Weekly and fortnightly	Constant, 9 months; in winter, uncertain	Ditto.	
		Winter	„ ...	2 0		2 20	...					
		Ditto (journeymen)—										
		Summer	„ ...	1 50		1 75	...			Constant, 8 months; in winter, nil	10 per cent.	
		Winter	„ ...	1 20		1 50	...					
		Ditto (boys 12 to 17 yrs.)—										
		Summer	„ ...	1 0		1 25	..			As for master masons	15 per cent.	
		Winter	„ ...	0 80		1 20	...					
		Marblecutters and squarers	„ ...	3 50		4 0	4 30	... ...	...	... ...	...	
		Painters (house)	„ ...	3 50		5 0	...	11 hours in summer.	Fortnightly.	Intermittent... ...	10 per cent.	
		Paviers	„ ...	2 50		3 25	...	16 hours in summer.	Weekly ...	Constant, 9 months...	Ditto.	

* For minor cities of Piedmont wages may generally be calculated at 15 per cent. less than at Turin; and in small towns and villages, 25 per cent. less. This would not apply, however, to skilled mechanics employed on railways or similar undertakings. An artizan by piece-work may be calculated to earn one-fourth and sometimes one-half more than the average wages noted in this Table. A general rise in wages, in the Building trade especially, is anticipated on account of the removal of the capital to Rome, and of the number of workmen who, it is said, intend to leave for France as soon as peace shall have been concluded. This anticipation may not, however, be realized.

Province.	Place.	Trades or Industries.	Average Wages in Italian Lire.				Average Hours of Work.	Wages, when usually Paid.	Employment. Whether Constant.	Increase of Wages during the last 20 years.	Remarks.
				L. c.	L. c.	L. c.					
Turin ...	Turin ...	Building Trade, &c.—									
		Plumbers	„ ...	1 75	2 25	...	12 hours in summer; 7 or 8 in winter	Weekly ...	Constant, 7 months; limited, 5 months	10 per cent.	Out-of-door work.
		Stonecutters	„ ...	2 25	3 0	...	As above	Fortnightly and monthly	Constant, 9 months; uncertain, 3 months	15 per cent.	
		Whitewashers, varnishers, &c.	„ ...	2 25	3 20	4 0	11 hours in summer.	Weekly ...	Constant, 10 months	Ditto.	
		Workers in asphalt and mosaic pavements	„ ...	2 25	2 75	3 50	All day	Ditto ...	Constant, 9 months...	10 per cent.	
		Ditto in stucco	„ ...	3 50	4 0	4 30	... ...	...	... ...		
		Lithographers—									
		Engravers and writers, 1st class	per mensem	200 0	200 0	...	... ...	Monthly.			
		Ditto, 2nd class	„ ...	80 0	180 0	...	... ...	Ditto.			
		Printers, 1st class ...	Per diem ...	4 0	6 0	...					
		Ditto, 2nd class	„ ...	2 0	4 0	...					
		Polishers	„ ...	1 50	2 50	...					
		Warehousemen	„ ...	2 0	3 0	...					
		Porters	„ ...	1 50	2 0	...					
		Printers—									
		Compositors ...	„ ...	4 0	5 0*	...		Monthly or *by piece-work	Good compositors easily find work		
		Pressmen	Per diem ...	3 0	...	...	10 hours in summer; 9 hours in winter	...	... ...	About 10 per cent.	
		Attendants on machines (mechanics)	Per mensem	120 0	130 0	...		Monthly...	... ...		
		Layers on (women and girls)	Per diem ...	1 0	1 25	...		...	... ...		
		Paper-makers—					12 hours. The Turin paper-mill works day and night, except Sundays and Holy days. Workmen change at noon and midnight				
		Foremen	„ ...	3 0	...	...		Weekly ...	Constant	...	Lodging given in warehouse near the mill.
		Operatives, men	„ ...	1 70	...	...		Ditto ...	Ditto	...	
		„ women ...	„ ...	0 60	...	...		Ditto ...	Ditto	...	
		Rag cutters, women ...	„ ...	1 0	...	...		Piece-work	Ditto	...	
		Tobacco factory—									
		Workmen, permanent ...	„ ...	2 20	...	...	... ...	Weekly ...	Constant, except during last week of year for piece-workers, when stock is taken	...	Closed on Holy days.
		„ by the day ...	„ ...	1 30	...	...	... ...	Piece-work, 35 c. per 100 cigars		...	
		Cigar-makers, females ...	„ ...	1 20	...	...	... ...	...		...	
		Workwomen, ordinary ...	„ ...	0 70	...	...	... ...	...		...	

Province.	Place.	Trades or Industries.	Average Wages in Italian Lire.				Average Hours of Work.	Wages, when usually Paid.	Employment. Whether Constant.	Increase of Wages during the last 20 Years.	Remarks.
				L. c.	L. c.	L. c.					
Turin ...	Turin ...	Royal Arsenal, Powder-mill, and Small-arms Factory—									
		Civilians—									
		Foreman mechanics ...	Per hour ...	0 32	0 50	0 65	On an average, 10 hours; *i.e.*, 10 and 11 hours in summer, and 8 or 9 hours in winter	Fortnightly.	Constant	Wages have risen	For work paid by the hour.
		Mechanics	,, ...	0 18	0 32	0 50					
		Foremen labourers ...	,, ...	0 23	0 29	0 35					
		Labourers	,, ...	0 15	0 20	0 26					
		Females and boys ...	,, ...	0 4	0 10	0 15					
		Soldiers—									
		Foremen mechanics ...	,, ...	0 10	0 12	0 14					The soldiers receive their military pay in addition.
		Mechanics	,, ...	0 5	0 7	0 9					
		Foremen labourers ...	,, ...	0 8	0 10	0 12					
		Civilians—									
		Foremen labourers ...	Per diem ...	2 50	2 75	3 0					For work paid by the day.
		Labourers	,, ...	2 0	2 25	2 50					
		Tailors—									
		Men (good workmen) ...	,, ...	3 0	...	...	10 hours	...	For 9 months ...	About 33 per cent.	
		Women (good workwomen)	,, ...	2 0	...	...	Ditto	...	Ditto	About 16 per cent.	
		By piece-work	,, ...	4 0	...	...					
		Workers in Iron—									
		Blacksmiths	,, ...	3 0	3 50	4 50	9½ to 10½ hours ...	Weekly ...	Constant, but less in winter	20 per cent.	
		Filers	,, ...	2 0	3 0	3 50	Ditto	Weekly or fortnightly	... ...	Ditto.	
		Fitters	,, ...	4 0	4 50	5 0	Ditto				
		Plate-layers (on railways)	,, ...	...	...	...					
		Turners in iron	,, ...	3 50	4 0	5 0	Ditto				
	Caselle ...	Woollen Cloth Factory—									
		Men...	,, ...	1 50	...	...					
		Women	,, ...	0 80	...	...					
		Weavers and spinners ...	,, ...	2 50	3 50	...	... ...	Piece-work.	... ...	...	Average earnings by piece-work.
	Luzerna ... (Vaudois Valley)	Cotton Mill—									
		Men...	,, ...	1 20	2 25*	...	12 hours 30 minutes	*Piece-work.			
		Women	,, ...	0 90	1 0*	...					
		Children	,, ...	0 50	...	...					

Province.	Place.	Trades or Industries.	Average Wages in Italian Lire.				Average Hours of Work.	Wages, when usually Paid.	Employment. Whether Constant.	Increase of Wages during the last 20 Years.	Remarks.
				L. c.	L. c.	L. c.					
Turin ...	St. Germain (Vaudois Valley)	Cotton Factory—									
		Men...	Per diem ...	1 20	2 25*	...	12 hours 30 minutes	*Piece-work			
		Women	,, ...	0 90	1 0*	...					
		Children	,, ...	0 50	...	...					
	Torre Pellice (ditto)	Woollen Cloth Factory—									
		Men...	,, ...	1 25	2 50*	...	12 hours 30 minutes	*Piece-work			
		Women	,, ...	0 90	0 75*	...					
		Children	,, ...	0 75	...	...					
		Silk-reeling Mills—									
		Men...	,, ...	1 10	...	...					Almost all women and children.
		Women	,, ...	0 90	...	...					
		Children	,, ...	0 60	...	...					
		Silk Filatures—									
		Men...	,, ...	1 50	...	...					As above. Lodging gratis.
		Women	,, ...	1 0	...	...	12 hours 30 minutes	*Piece-work	... ...	...	
		Children	,, ...	0 60	...	...					
		Thread Factory—									
		Men...	, ...	1 50	...	...					
		Women	,, ...	1 0	1 40*	...					
		Children	,, ...	0 60	...	...					
Cuneo ...	...	Women	,, ...	1 0	1 10	...	June to Sept., daybreak to sunset, with 2 hours' rest at midday: other months, from daybreak to 9 P.M., with 1 hour's rest	By day, except for Superintendents, who are paid by week, month, or year, according to agreement	6 to 9 months ...	20 to 30 per cent.	
		Apprentices (girls) ...	,, ...	0 60	0 70	...					
		Women	,, ...	0 60	0 70	0 80	April to Aug., daybreak to sunset; Sept. to March, daybreak to 10 P.M., with brief intervals of rest		During whole silk campaign		
		Girls	,, ...	0 20	...	...					
Novara ...	Biella ...	Woollen Factories—									
		Spinners—									
		Men	,, ...	1 0	2 25	3 0*	... ...	*Piece-work			
		Women	,, ..	0 75	1 0	1 25*					
		Children	,, ...	0 40	0 70	...					
		Weavers—									
		Men	,, ...	1 0	3 0	4 0*					
		Women	,, ...	1 50*	...	...					

Province.	Place.	Trades or Industries.	Average Wages in Italian Lire.				Average Hours of Work.	Wages, when usually Paid.	Employment. Whether Constant.	Increase of Wages during the last 20 Years.	Remarks.
				L. c.	L. c.	L. c.					
Novara ...	Biella ...	Manufactures of Hosiery—									
		Men...	Per diem ...	1 25	1 60	...					
		Women and girls	„ ...	0 40	1 0	...					
		Cotton Factories—									
		Spinners—									
		Men	„ ...	1 0	1 25	...					
		Women	„ ...	0 75	1 0	...					
		Children	„ ...	0 40	0 75	...					
		Weavers—									
		Men	„ ...	2 50	...	...					
		Women	„ ...	1 50	...	...					
		Hat-makers—									
		Men...	„ ...	1 25	2 0	...					
		Women and girls	„ ...	1 25	1 80	...					
		Paper-mills—									
		Workmen in general ...	„ ...	...	...	...					
		Trades, various—									
		Blacksmiths	„ ...	1 25	2 75	...					
		Carpenters	„ ...	1 0	2 50	...					
		Masons	„ ...	1 25	2 0	...					
		Skilled mechanics... ...	„ ...	1 50	3 0	...					
	Intra and Pallanza	Cotton and Silk-mills—									
		Men...	„ ...	1 20	1 60	2 50	In summer, 13 hrs.	Part by day and part by piece-work	Constant, except for glassworks, 7 months, and for factories worked by hydraulic power, which are subject to diminution of work if water falls	30 per cent.	Artizans paid by piece-work are able to earn more than the others.
		Women	„ ...	0 60	1 0	1 20	In winter, 11 and 12 hours				
		Children	„ ...	0 30	0 60	0 80					
		Factories, various—									
		Men...	„ ...	1 50	2 50	...					
		Women	„ ...	1 0	1 40	...					
		Children	„ ...	0 60	1 0	...					
		Foundries, Glassworks, Machine-makers, &c.—									
		Artizans	„ ...	4 0*	5 0*	...	... ...	* By piece-work		...	Best workmen.
		Trades, various—									
		Blacksmiths, carpenters, masons, &c.	„ ...	1 50	2 50	...					
Piedmont in general	...	Workers in Mines—									
		Adults	„ ...	1 25	1 82	2 80	... ...	...	Minimum, 20 days.		
		Children	„ ...	0 85	0 87	1 0	... ...	...	Average, 210½ days.		

(Table 6.)—SHOWING the Average Rates of Wages in some of the Principal Trades and Industries in Lombardy.

Province.	Place.	Trades or Industries.	Average Wages in Italian Lire.				Average Hours of Work.	Wages, when usually Paid.	Employment. Whether Constant.	Increase of Wages during the last 20 Years.	Remarks.
				L. c.	L. c.	L. c.					
Bergamo ...	Bergamo ...	Building Trade, &c.—									
		Carpenter (house)	Per diem	2 50	...	...	Calculated on an average of 10 working hours per diem for the whole year. Wages differ in winter and summer	...	Work constant, except for masons, who suspend work in midwinter	Between 20 and 40 per cent.	
		Carpenter and joiner ...	„ ...	2 0	2 80	...					
		Ditto, assistant	„ ...	0 90	1 20	...					
		Gasfitter	„ ...	3 50	...	...					
		Ditto, assistant	„ ...	1 0	...	...					
		Glazier	„ ...	2 0	...	...					
		Ditto, assistant	„ ...	1 0	...	...					
		Mason...	„ ...	2 0	...	...					
		Ditto, labourer	„ ...	1 10	...	...					
		Ditto, boy	„ ...	0 90	...	...					
		Marble cutters and squarers	„ ...	3 0	4 0	„					
		Painter (house) and decorator	„ ...	2 20	5 0	...					
		Pavier	„ ...	2 40	...	...					
		Stonecutter, 1st class ...	„ ...	3 50	...	...					
		Ditto, 2nd class	„ ...	3 0	...	...					
		Ditto, assistant	„ ...	2 20	...	...					
		Stovemaker	„ ...	3 50	...	...					
		Ditto, assistant	„ ...	1 0	...	...					
		Tinman and brazier... ...	„ ...	2 20	...	...					
		Ditto, assistant	„ ...	1 0	...	...					
		Varnisher and gilder ...	„ ...	2 50	...	...					
		Whitewasher...	„ ...	2 0	...	...					
		Worker in stucco	„ ...	3 0	4 0	...					
		Ditto, assistant	„ ...	1 20	...	...					
Milan ...	Milan ...	Button-makers—									
		Men	„ ...	2 0	2 50	...					
		Women	„ ...	1 25	...	...					
		Children	„ ...	0 50	...	...					
Milan, Como, &c.	...	Cotton Manufacture—									
		Mills—									In the cotton manufacture the workpeople are, I believe, generally paid by piece-work.
		Men...	„ ...	1 50	2 0	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	
		Women	„ ...	0 88	1 0	...					
		Children	„ ...	0 44	0 50	...					

Province.	Place.	Trades or Industries.	Average Wages in Italian Lire.				Average Hours of Work.	Wages when usually Paid.	Employment. Whether Constant.	Increase of Wages during the last 20 Years.	Remarks.
				L. c.	L. c.	L. c.					
Milan, Como, &c.	...	Cotton Manufacture—									
		Factories—									
		Yarn dyers...	Per diem	0 88	2 50	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	Men.
		Twisters and throwsters ...	» ...	0 44	1 60	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	Men and women.
		Winders	» ...	0 30	0 50	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	Old men and boys.
		Warpers	» ...	0 75	1 4	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	Women and strong girls.
		Spoolers	» ...	0 20	0 30	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	Little girls and elderly women.
		Weavers	» ...	0 88	2 50	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	Men and women.
		Dressers and pressers ...	» ...	1 5	...	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	Men.
		Dyers	» ...	0 88	2 50	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	Ditto.
		Bleachers	» ...	0 88	2 50	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	Men and women.
Milan ...	Milan and Mouza	Felt-hat Makers—									
		Men, 1st class	» ...	2 25	...	...					
		Ditto, 2nd class	» ...	1 25	...	...					
		Women	» ...	0 75	...	...					
		Children	» ...	0 20	...	...					
Cremona, Brescia, Bergamo	...	Linen Manufacture—									
		Spinners (men and women) .	» ...	1 25	2 25	...					
		Ditto children	» ...	0 30	0 80	...					
		Weavers	» ...	1 0	2 0	...					
Milan ...	Milan ...	Makers of Paperhangings—									
		Men	» ...	1 75	3 0	...					
		Boys	» ...	0 25	0 80	...					
		Musical Instrument Makers—									
		Brass instrument makers ...	» ...	2 0	3 0	...					
		Wooden ditto...	» ...	2 0	3 0	...					
		Pianoforte ditto	» ...	2 0	4 0	...					
Lombardy in general	...	Silk Manufacture—									
		Reeling mills—									
		Reelers	» ...	1 0	1 20	...	... ...	...	Depends upon yield of cocoons	...	Sometimes soup is given.
Ditto ...	...	Winders	» ...	0 50	0 60	...	... ...	...	... ...	...	Ditto.
		Filatures—									
		Men...	» ...	1 50	...	...					
		Women	» ...	0 70	...	...					
		Children	» ...	0 35	...	...					

Province.	Place.	Trades or Industries.	Average Wages in Italian Lire.						Average Hours of Work.	Wages when usually Paid.	Employment. Whether Constant.	Increase of Wages during the last 20 Years.	Remarks.
				L. c.		L. c.		L. c.					
Milan, Como	...	Silk Manufacture—											
		Weavers of figured silks, men	Per week	16 0*		20 0*		...	... ...	*Piece-work	... ...	...	Wages rather less at Como than at Milan
		Weavers of plain silks and velvets, men	„ ...	10		15 0*		...	... ...	*Ditto			
		Weavers of silks of less importance, women	„ ...	8 0*		12 0*		...	... ...	*Ditto			
		Spoolers	Per diem	1 0		...		...	... ...	...	... ...	...	For adults, less for boys according to ability
		Apprentices ("malis") ...	„ ...	0 80*		0 90*		...	... ...	*Piece-work	... ...	...	Are paid by weavers themselves.
		Warpers, winders, &c., women	Per week	8 0*		10 0*		15 0*	... ...	*Ditto			
Lombardy in general	...	Silk veil and lacemakers—											
		Women and girls	„ ...	0 20*		1 0*		...	... ...	*Ditto.			
Milan ...	Milan ...	Workers in Metals—											
		Bronze founders, gilders, &c.											
		Men...	„ ...	2 0		5 0		...					
		Boys	„ ...	0 50		1 0		...					
		Type-founders	„ ...	0 50*		0 50		...	... ...	*Piece-work			
		Workers in Gold and Silver—											
		Jewellers—											
		Men...	Per diem	1 50		3 50		...					
		Women	„ ...	0 40		2 0		...					
		Children	„ ...	0 20		0 60		...					
		Trades, various—											
		Bakers	Per month	40 0†		...		...	... ...	Monthly ...	... ...	The rise in wages generally, but varying in the different trades, may be calculated at 40 per cent.	
		Boot and shoemakers—											
		Men...	Per diem	1 50		1 75		2 50*	11 to 12 hours ...	Weekly or by *piece-work	Constant for good workmen		
		Women	„ ...	0 75		...		...					
		Ladies shoemakers	„ ...	3 0		...		...					
		Cabinetmakers	„ ...	3 50		...		...	10 hours	Weekly ...	... ...		
		Carpenters	„ ...	2 0		...		...	Ditto	Ditto ...	... ...		
		Saddlers	„ ...	2 50		...		...	Ditto	Ditto ...	... ...		
		Smiths...	„ ...	2 30		...		...	Ditto	Ditto ...	... ...		
		Tailors...	„ ...	1 60		...		...	Ditto	Ditto ...	... ...		
		Ditto, cutters	„ ...	4 50		...		...	Ditto	Ditto ...	... ...		

* With board and lodging, *i.e.*, rice or bread soup at 7 A.M., bread and glass of wine at noon, rice or bread soup in evening.

In the shoemaking trade the workmen are generally paid by piece-work, when more may be gained. Wages, contrary to other trades, have not increased during last 20 years, owing to competition of convict prisons and large supply of workmen. Shoemakers and tailors very frequently do not work on Mondays.

I annex a Table* showing the average prices of articles of food, wine, &c., on the markets of Turin from the year 1860 to 1869, inclusive. The prices include the town dues (octroi), of which a note is added to the Table; provisions would therefore be cheaper outside the city boundaries.

* "Riepilogo per l'anno 1860 (ed anni seguenti) del Bollettino settimanale dei Mercati," &c. Città di Torino, Polizia Municipale.

(Table 7.)—SHOWING the Prices of Articles of Food, Wine, &c., in the Markets of Turin, from 1860 to 1869, inclusive.

	Weights and Measures.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
		L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.
Cereals—											
Wheat	Hectolitre	21 17	24 7	22 91	20 61	19 73	19 24	21 95	25 86	26 31	20 19
Rye	,,	12 61	14 98	15 75	12 31	13 76	11 80	13 12	15 22	14 46	13 28
Barley	,,	13 62	12 65	13 43	12 97	13 61	11 23	12 98	14 16	16 35	13 38
Oats	,,	9 30	11 28	10 51	9 58	10 96	9 86	10 81	10 23	10 99	9 96
Rice	,,	25 96	26 39	26 44	26 45	26 44	26 77	31 28	32 52	30 27	27 52
Maize	,,	12 66	16 47	18 5	12 72	12 50	13 16	14 8	17 32	15 70	11 4
Wine—											
1st quality	,,	62 4	61 13	52 61	51 13	58 87	43 60	44 33	52 0	51 34	49 23
2nd quality	,,	44 20	42 15	37 6	36 26	44 12	33 6	34 82	39 86	38 67	37 16
Poultry—											
Fowls	Per head	1 15	1 18	1 39	1 25	1 26	1 31	1 22	1 5	1 29	1 23
Capons	,,	2 1	1 85	2 52	2 54	2 87	2 84	2 66	2 79	3 20	3 10
Geese	,,	3 85	3 84	3 92	3 94	3 94	5 37	5 14	4 18	..	6 50
Ducks	,,	1 82	1 98	2 4	2 1	2 1	2 25	2 27	2 23	2 59	2 47
Turkeys	,,	4 21	4 12	4 57	4 29	4 48	5 20	4 46	5 13	5 16	5 20
Guinea fowls	,,	..	..	..	..	..	1 89	1 73	1 77	1 99	1 92
Fresh fish—											
Tunny and trout	Per kilogramme	3 62	3 73	3 66	3 81	4 5	4 59	4 23	3 71	4 5	4 11
Eels and tench	,,	1 66	1 64	1 83	1 95	2 4	2 6	2 9	1 84	1 93	1 76
Lampreys	,,	2 80	2 95	2 97	3 33	3 75	4 11	4 18	3 51	3 58	3 27
Barbel and pike	,,	1 33	1 41	1 36	1 45	1 37	1 50	1 40	1 6	1 10	1 5
Small fish	,,	0 70	0 73	0 83	0 82	0 82	0 84	0 94	0 73	0 78	0 70
Vegetables—											
Potatoes	Per myriagramme	1 24	1 25	1 28	1 9	1 28	1 19	1 19	1 47	1 21	1 7
Turnips	,,	1 63	1 40	1 51	1 51	1 54	1 47	1 85	1 39	0 95	1 11
Cabbages	,,	1 44	1 14	1 11	1 18	1 23	1 43	1 26	1 48	0 99	1 0
Fruit—											
Chestnuts, green	,,	2 40	3 0	2 7	1 85	1 54	1 70	1 67	2 17	1 94	1 9
,, white	,,	3 3	3 54	3 14	2 77	2 61	2 27	2 16	2 83	2 82	2 46

	Weights and Measures.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
		L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.
Fruit—											
Pears	Per myriagramme	3 39	3 44	3 8	5 17	3 70	2 38	2 26	2 94	3 17	3 41
Apples	,, ..	2 5	2 21	1 69	2 44	2 58	1 52	2 8	2 34	2 15	1 78
Grapes	,, ..	7 69	6 1	6 49	6 19	7 8	4 63	5 99	4 80	5 38	6 66
Butter—											
1st quality	Per kilogramme..	2 20	2 19	2 25	2 15	2 26	2 23	2 2	2 8	2 48	2 51
2nd quality	,, ..	1 81	1 89	2 1	1 85	1 95	1 95	1 72	1 72	1 96	2 11
Firewood—											
Oak	Per myriagramme	0 39	0 43	0 42	0 44	0 45	0 44	0 48	0 39	0 42	0 41
Walnut	,, ..	0 36	0 39	0 38	0 40	0 40	0 40	0 39	0 38	0 41	0 39
Alder and poplar	,, ..	0 30	0 34	0 32	0 32	0 32	0 32	0 34	0 32	0 31	0 34
Charcoal—											
Beech	,, ..	1 11	1 16	1 12	1 19	1 14	1 17	1 21	1 18	1 10	1 9
Chestnut	,, ..	0 73	0 74	0 72	0 87	0 93	0 95	1 10	0 86	0 76	0 80
Bread—											
Gressini	Per kilogramme..	0 50	0 55	0 53	0 51	0 51	0 49	0 54	0 62	0 65	0 59
Fine	,, ..	0 39	0 43	0 41	0 39	0 39	0 36	0 40	0 47	0 48	0 41
Household	,, ..	0 32	0 34	0 33	0 32	0 32	0 30	0 31	0 40	0 41	0 34
Meat—											
Young veal ("sanato") ..	,, ..	1 40	1 33	1 47	1 61	1 49	1 50	1 49	1 50	1 54	1 57
Veal	,, ..	1 16	1 10	1 32	1 33	1 24	1 28	1 24	1 31	1 38	1 36
Ox beef	,, ..	1 7	1 3	1 19	1 16	1 10	1 10	1 11	1 9	1 17	1 15
Cow beef	,, ..	0 74	0 72	0 80	0 91	0 89	0 89	0 90	0 92	1 1	0 98
Old cow beef	,, ..	0 58	0 55	0 63	0 71	0 73	0 71	0 73	0 76	0 85	0 81
Mutton	,, ..	0 90	0 91	1 3	1 11	1 12	1 10	1 9	1 9	1 14	1 14
Lamb	,, ..	0 83	0 84	0 90	1 11	1 8	0 99	0 98	1 2	1 10	1 7
Kid	,, ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0 98	1 4	1 4
Pork	,, ..	..	..	..	..	..	1 57	1 55	1 57	1 62	1 63
Fodder—											
Hay	Per myriagramme	0 76	0 93	0 88	0 84	1 4	1 2	0 80	0 67	0 90	0 93
Straw	,, ..	0 54	0 58	0 55	0 58	0 69	0 66	0 56	0 38	0 45	0 52

The town dues (octroi) have not remained stationary during the above period. In 1867, 1868, and 1869 the charges for some of the principal articles of consumption are marked below. The product of the dues is divided in unequal proportions between the Government and the Commune.

		L.	c.
Wine in cask	per hectolitre	8	0
Grapes, above 6 kilos.	per quintal	4	50
Calves	„	10	0
Oxen, cows, &c.	„	8	0
Pigs	„	12	0
Sucking pigs	per head	6	50
Sheep and goats	per quintal	4	0
Lambs and kids	per head	0	60
Poultry of all kinds	per quintal	20	0
Fresh fish	„	30	0
Wheat flour	„	3	0
Other flour	„	1	50
Rice	„	0	50
Wheaten bread and pastes	„	4	0
Other bread and pastes	„	2	0
Butter	„	10	0
Sugar	„	5	0
Firewood of all kinds	„	0	30
Charcoal	„	0	60
Hay	„	1	0

Dress.—The artizans and their wives are generally sufficiently though simply clothed. The men wear blouses and fustian on working days, but on Sundays usually appear in suits of Italian cloth, which are chiefly remarkable for the lively colouring of the nether garments. The women are generally dressed in foreign prints of sober hues, with a coloured handkerchief tied over the head. In the winter they are protected from the cold by coarse knitted waistcoats and underclothing.

The young milliners, ironers, and shop girls of Turin are particular in the arrangement of their hair, which the better paid not unfrequently confide to the daily care of a professional hairdresser. In this city they usually wear the modern bonnet instead of a handkerchief or veil, which last, of black lace, is the national head-dress of Milan.

The prices of some articles of clothing are as follows:—

		L.	c.		L.	c.
At Biella—						
Cloth	per mètre	6	0	to	10	0
Cotton stuffs	„	1	0		1	50
At Intra—						
Cotton stuffs for shirts, petticoats, &c.	„				0	60
Fustian	„				1	25
Shoes	per pair	4	0		6	0

At Intra it would appear that a man can procure a working suit of clothes for from 15 to 20 lire, while a woman can dress herself for from 10 to 15 lire, not including shoes in either case.

At Turin, a jacket, waistcoat, and trousers of woollen cloth may be purchased for from 45 to 55 lire.

Lodging.—In the dark and squalid lanes where formerly the working classes were crowded together, light and air, and every commodity of life were wanting. Sickness reigned; the strength of generations was wasted; scrofula, which still mows down many victims, was more extensively generated; and epidemics spread from these centres of contagion to the more healthy quarters of the city. Even now but little has been done to improve the dwellings of the artizans, though the rent they pay is not light. Owners of houses prefer other tenants for fear of difficulty in obtaining their rent, or of losing it altogether; in consequence, they raise the amount to counterbalance the risk.*

At Milan, where the workmen live in distinct quarters, efforts are being made, which it would seem are attended with success, to improve their dwellings. A large block of buildings erected, on the system first practised at Mulhouse, by the "Società Edificatrice di Case Bagni e Lavatoi Pubblici," were inhabited in 1868 by 244 families (in all 1,204 individuals). The rooms are 632 in number, of which 74 are used as shops and laboratories. Near the buildings is a public washhouse, with 120 places. An infant school has recently been opened for the children of the artizans living in the houses.

At Turin, a similar society has not met with success, chiefly, I understand, from the promoters having built a block of habitations suitable to the middle classes rather than to artizans. In this city, moreover, the condition

* E. Fano. "Della Carità Preventiva," &c., pp. 648-49.

of the working classes as to their lodgings is different to that of the population of Milan. There is no absolute workman's quarter; in all parts of the town the garrets of the Palaces form the abodes of the poorer classes. As a rule, they must be wretched rooms, bitterly cold in winter, and hot in summer; but the system is said to have its advantages in rendering the communion and sympathy between rich and poor more frequent. The flowers so often seen in the attic windows testify to the taste of the wives and daughters of the Turin workmen. In the suburbs the lodgings of the artizans may be better, and are, probably, cheaper, than in the centre of the town.

In the Biellese the factory hands and other workmen are generally scattered in the many small villages of the district, and but few are concentrated in the town of Biella. In the villages, when, as is generally the case, they are small proprietors, the workmen reside in their own cottages. In the town they rent their lodgings.

The average price of lodgings may be noted as under:—

At Turin, per room and per annum, 72 to 76 lire (garrets).
At La Tour (Vaudois Valley), ditto, 36 to 48 lire (four persons generally live in one room).
At Biella, ditto, 40 to 60 lire (in the town),
Ditto, ditto, 20 lire (in the country districts).
At Intra, ditto, 24 to 30 lire (lodgings scattered and bad).
In Lombardy, for a workman with a family, ditto, 100 lire (average rent in towns).
Ditto, ditto, 50 lire (average rent in the country districts).

In Turin there are also common lodging-houses known as "piazze da letto," at which single men are able to obtain a cheap bed. The average charge for a night's lodging is, I understand, about 25 centimes.

Labour Market.—The labour market in North Italy does not need to be recruited from abroad. English artizans are only employed here in small numbers and on special occupations, as by the Mont Cenis Railway Company, in mining operations, but only where particular skill is required, and on temporary work for the erection of agricultural and other machines. As, however, our countrymen are occasionally to be met with here, as in other parts of the world, the following notice of the capabilities of the country for their support, with which I have been favoured by Mr. Mitchell, locomotive

superintendent of the Mont Cenis Railway Company, may not be without interest :—

"At Susa food can be procured pretty much as in England, but at a more reasonable rate; and fruit, a luxury with us, is abundant here. There is no lack of good meat, capital bread, and fair wine; beer can also be had, though not so strong (which is rather an advantage) as at home. Spirits only, which are bad, must be avoided. Clothing pretty much as in England, but care must be taken that the heavy winter dress is not too suddenly cast aside in the spring.

"Any exertion to which a man is accustomed in England may be ventured upon here, and any man who takes ordinary care of himself may, as a rule, enjoy unbroken health. I speak as to the residents in Susa, and do not refer to the engine-drivers over the Mont Cenis, who are constantly exposed to an ever-varying temperature.

"At present lodgings are not easily procurable at Susa, on account of the new line to the Bardonnêche Tunnel, but accommodation of some sort can generally be had within ten or fifteen minutes' walk of the station. Unfortunately, drainage and ventilation do not receive requisite attention, though, as a rule, all windows are made to open, so that in this latter particular Italy cannot be said to be deficient. Drainage is simply provided for by streams of water running through the principal streets."

Susa is favourably situate on the high road to Turin, and good living, as understood by English workmen, may probably be obtained on more reasonable terms than in more remote districts. Mr. Dietsch, manager of the Anglo-Italian Gold Mining Company, writing from Domo d'Ossola, on the Simplon route, is of opinion that, as regards the expense of comfortable living in that district and England, there would scarcely be any difference, and that, on the same wages, miners would, on the whole, live better in England than in this country.

Relations between Masters and Operatives.—No special laws regulate the relations between master and workman in Italy. Labour is free, and any contract may be legally stipulated that is not contrary to the general provisions of the Civil Code.

Articles 385, 386, and 387 of the Penal Code affect combinations, whether by workmen or their employers, for the purpose of unduly raising or lowering the price of labour. They run as follows:—*

Art. 385. Any combination among employers of labour, for the purpose of unjustly and abusively compelling their workmen to accept a reduction of wages, or to receive commodities in whole or part payment, if such combination has been followed by some overt act in execution of it, shall be punished with imprisonment not exceeding one month, and a fine of not less than 100 or more than 3,000 lire.

Art. 386. Every combination among workmen for the purpose of suspending or impeding any work, or increasing its cost, without reasonable cause, shall be punished with three months' imprisonment whenever it has begun to be carried into effect.

Art. 387. In the cases provided for in the two preceding Articles, the chief instigators, or promoters, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period of not less than six months.

There is no law as to the employment of children in factories, though one is greatly needed, but no children under ten years of age are permitted by law to work in mines.†

The usual contract between master and workman would appear to be by the week, at fixed daily wages, or by piece work. Eight days' notice on either side, in the absence of any special agreement, suffices to terminate the engagement.

Trades' Unions.—Trades' unions, so far as I have been able to learn, appear as yet to have made but little general way in North Italy. This is probably owing, in great part, to the fact that the country is more agricultural than industrial. Where industries, however, have taken root, the influence of unions for controlling the laws of labour is beginning to be felt, and this would appear to be especially the case at Biella, the important centre of the woollen manufacture of Piedmont. I have not been able to obtain any particular information about

* Translated in "Correspondence with Her Majesty's Missions abroad regarding Industrial Questions and Trades Unions, 1867" p. 181.

† "Regolamento della Polizia delle Miniere," &c., 1865, Art. 10.

the working of the trades' unions established in this district among the hat-makers, weavers, and spinners. The chiefs are unknown, but the Unions appear connected with the local Benefit Societies, and are thought to be in communication with foreign international associations. The results of the Unions, the tendency of which is believed to be to the detriment of a flourishing industry, have been seen in various partial strikes since 1864, in which year a general strike of the factory hands of the Brillese occurred, which was terminated by mutual concessions, not, however, without the intervention of the authorities. The strikes since 1865 appear to have been occasioned by the introduction of improved machinery into the factories, by the dismissal of a portion of the hands during a commercial crisis, and when the manufacturers have taken up important contracts which have to be completed within a certain period.

After the strike of 1864, thirty-three manufacturers of the district formed an association for regulating the relations between themselves and their workpeople, so as to reconcile the conflicting rights and interests of both parties.

The association is supported by annual subscriptions. The management is entrusted to a central committee, elected by the members in general meeting, with full executive authority, and holding office for twelve months.

The Articles of the Statute which regulate the relations of the members of the association with their workpeople are to the following effect:—

Art. 12. The manufacturers are the primary guardians and defenders of the rights, the interests, and the moral dignity of the operatives. To this end they must subordinate their acts and conduct. Any member whom the central committee shall deem to have failed in this duty shall be admonished and fined 50 lire.

Art. 13. The members may not listen to the demands or complaints of their workpeople in a body, without first receiving the requisite authority from the Central Committee.

Art. 14. Whenever serious disorders or dissensions take place in one or more factories, the member should invite the operatives to refer the matter to the judgment of the Central Committee.

In any case the Central Committee is empowered to prescribe to the member the line of conduct he should pursue, and to order the other members to take such measures as may be needed to paralyze the coalition of the workpeople.

Art. 15. When the measures ordered by the Central Committee shall be applicable to one factory only, or to a department of the same, the Committee, on recognizing that the owner is suffering through no fault of his own, shall determine the amount of indemnity that he may be entitled to receive from the fund to be formed out of the contributions of the members. From this decision of the Central Committee there is no appeal.

Art. 16. In the event of any future strike on the part of the operatives, when the factories shall have ceased work by order of the Central Committee, no member shall reopen his establishment without a written authorization from the Committee. Such permission shall only be granted to all the members simultaneously, or when all are in a position to profit by it.

Each manufacturer must warn his workpeople that the factory can only remain open permanently when all the operatives belonging to the other establishments have consented to resume work, so that if the strike, after the factories are reopened, be maintained in one or more, the Central Committee would at once order them all to be reclosed.

I have transcribed the above Articles more to show what the manufacturers intended than what they performed. The Association still exists, and is said not to have been altogether without effect; but it was found impossible to enforce the Articles which refer to the simultaneous closing of the several factories. One manufacturer's difficulty is another's opportunity, the masters' union, therefore,—and it may be that this need not altogether be regretted,—could never become thorough.

The Factory Rules in force at Biella were adopted by common consent of masters and operatives after the strike of 1864, and are of the following tenor:—

Article 1. The present Regulations are binding on manufacturers and operatives.

The manufacturer is bound to treat the operative with humanity and justice, defending his rights; the

operative, on his part, binds himself to observe the present Regulations. He cannot free himself from his engagement, except in the manner noted below.

Art. 2. No operative can be engaged without producing a certificate.

The operative undertakes to work faithfully. He cannot quit his employment, except in case of sickness, without giving, if a foreman, three months', if an ordinary hand, fifteen days' notice. Weavers before taking up the last chain.

In the same manner manufacturers in all ordinary cases, are bound to give like notice of discharge to their workpeople.

Art. 3. The operatives, whether working by the day or by piece-work, are bound to teach the apprentices confided to their care. The apprentices to pay their teachers one-fourth of their wages, and another one-fourth to the manufacturer for damages.

The apprenticeship of spinners lasts four months; of plain cloth weavers, eight months; of plain and figured cloth weavers, ten months.

Operatives refusing to take apprentices are subject to immediate dismissal.

In case of a reduction of workmen in the factory the last comers to be discharged before the first, saving the dispositions of Article 2.

Art. 4. The operative is responsible for damage done by his own carelessness.

Art. 5. The operatives must be respectful and obedient to the foremen. All complaints are to be referred to the principal.

Art. 6. Operatives are, moreover, required:—

(*a*) To be at their posts ten minutes after the entrance bell has rung, and not to leave them until the proper signal has been given.

(*b*) Not to be noisy or indecent in word or deed during the hours of work.

(*c*) Not to smoke.

(*d*) To act with the dignity that becomes free men, and respect others as they would wish themselves to be respected.

(*e*) To leave their cloaks, bags, &c., in a place appointed for the purpose. The effects of a suspected hand may be searched.

(*f*) To mark their aprons with their initials. The cloths and bags belonging to the factory are never to be made use of.

Any damage done by the weavers is to be made good at their own expense, and if it cannot be repaired the cost must be repaid to the principal.

Art. 7. The operative, working by the day or by piece-work, who absents himself from the factory for one or more days is fined by the stoppage of one-tenth of the real or presumed earnings for each day of absence.

If a workman be not in his place by the end of the ten minutes' law, but within the first hour, he will lose two hours' time.

Weavers have half-an-hour's law between October and March, and one hour between March and September.

One hour after the bell has rung operatives will not be admitted until the next entrance bell.

Repeated unpunctuality may be the cause of dismissal.

Art. 8. The violations of Article 6 are punished by a fine of 20 centimes for a man; 10 centimes for a woman or child.

Repetitions of an offence may occasion immediate discharge.

Art. 9. The product of merely disciplinary fines to be paid into a special fund in each factory in aid of old and infirm operatives, or the orphan families of the same who may be destitute. This fund is to be managed by three delegates of the manufacturers and three delegates of the workpeople.

Art. 10. No operative may leave the factory in working hours without a written permit.

No stranger is allowed to enter the factory; the porter will carry all messages to the operatives.

Art. 11. The time-table will be established in each factory, so that there shall be on an average eleven hours' work per diem.

Art. 12. The present regulations to be read to the operatives, posted up in all the factories, and to have immediate effect.

Benefit Societies.—To turn from associations established solely for purposes of attack and defence to others of a more genial nature, it is satisfactory to find that Benefit Societies (as distinguished from trades' unions), co-operative associations and savings banks are spreading

throughout the country; not everywhere in equal measure, or with like strength, but ever gaining ground and supported by the good-will of all classes of the community.

Benefit Societies* (Società di Mutuo Soccorso), however, hold no civil status in Italy. They are established simply under the 32nd Article of the Statute, which proclaims the right of peaceful meeting, they cannot inherit property, receive legacies, or sue in Courts of Law, though they may be sued in the person of their president or secretary. To remedy this state of affairs, a Bill has been drawn up for presentation to Parliament by a Royal Commission, for giving such associations a legal constitution on the principle of their registration under Government authority. It is doubtful, however, whether all the societies, notwithstanding the advantages offered, will be glad to exchange their present freedom from control for enforced inspection. An argument on the one hand, perhaps, for the adoption of the law, but showing at the same time a suspicion of the motives of a Government measure, which only a longer trial of free institutions will finally be able to overcome.

Of societies of mutual help, promoted under the sanction of religion, there was already no lack in Italy, and many of the associations that have recently arisen are transformations of the confraternities of artizans which have thrown off their ecclesiastical character to assume the lay habit. Some, however, though their Statutes have been reformed, still preserve the religious customs, the name, and, in some instances, the spirit of the original union.

The period in which the modern Benefit Societies began to spread in Italy is identical with the rise of free institutions in the different parts of the country. Of the 216 societies established in Piedmont and Lombardy by the end of 1862, only 24 existed in 1848. In 1862, the number of Benefit Societies in the Kingdom of Italy, according to official statistics, which are manifestly incomplete, was 443; of these, the rural classes only participated in 27, with 3,126 members, of whom 2,693, or six-sevenths, belonged to the agricultural provinces of

* See Fano, "Della Carità Preventiva," &c., already quoted. To M. Fano's valuable work I am indebted almost entirely for the following sketch of the Benefit Societies of North Italy.

Alessandria and Novara, in Piedmont, and Pavia, in Lombardy. At the present date the Benefit Societies in Italy must number over 600, and in Piedmont, at least, new associations are continually being founded.

In 1853 the first congress of working men's associations established in Piedmont was held at Asti, and attended by the deputies of more than 30 societies, four of which were female. Successive congresses were held each year, between 1854 and 1859, at Alessandria, Genoa, Vigerano, Voghera, Vercelli, and Novi. The number of societies represented increased gradually; at the congress of Vercelli in 1858, 55 put in an appearance.

The workmen in these congresses discussed all subjects likely to improve their condition. They spoke of their daily life, of the miseries and dangers to which they were exposed; they showed themselves anxious for instruction, solicitous about their fellow workmen, and animated with a desire for a glorious and powerful country.

In the congress held at Novi in 1859, the representatives of a Milanese society were welcomed with enthusiasm. Their presence was a visible sign of the redemption of Lombardy, and Milan was unanimously proclaimed the seat of the meeting of the congress for the ensuing year.

In Lombardy, in the meantime, the spirit of association had revived, and the representatives of twenty working men's societies, the greater part founded that same year, presented themselves to their guests at the congress of 1860. These assizes of labour formed a pleasant spectacle. The banners of the various arts and trades, ranged in order, recalled to mind the political and industrial greatness of Milan. At first all was concord, but unfortunately political questions were brought forward for discussion; stormy debates followed, which were repeated at Florence in September 1861; schisms were provoked, and the period of congresses was brought to a close.

Since 1861 Benefit Societies have increased, and been diffused in multiplied forms, thus attesting a vital force of an extensive character. It must not be forgotten, however, that to be born does not imply a long life, and the rise of similar institutions is not to be taken as a guarantee of their duration and prosperity. The Italian

societies, even some among the most prosperous, are too often based upon false economical principles. Some promise more than they will ever be able to perform; some take no account of differences of age in laying down the rates of subscriptions; others have founded their calculations on erroneous bases. The future of the Italian societies does not, therefore, always inspire full confidence. A time must come when the weak points in their harness will be but too surely tried.

With a view to remedy this evil the "Cassa di Risparmio," or Savings Bank of Milan, the most accredited and popular establishment of its kind in Italy, offered, in the year 1863, three premiums; the first of 3,000 lire, the second of 2,000 lire, and the third of 1,000 lire, to such Benefit Societies of Lombardy as, by a precise and clear statement of their administration and working, should be considered to have best attained the object for which they were established. In 1864 the premiums were increased to thirteen, seven of 1,000 lire and six of 500 lire, and the competition was opened to all the provinces of Italy. Each successive year similar grants of the annual value of 6,000 lire have been conferred on the most meritorious of the competing Societies. Especial attention is given to the preparation of statistics to enable comparative Tables of sickness and death to be compiled, by means of which the Italian Societies may lose the character of a lottery which they now possess, and rest their foundations on true scientific principles.

The subjoined Table shows the number of Societies that entered the lists from 1863 to 1868 inclusive for the premiums offered by the Milan Savings Bank.

(Table 8.)

Year.	Number of Competing Societies.	Number of Premiums conferred.	Amount of Premiums in Italian Lire.
1863	22	3	6,000
1864	66	13	10,000
1865	77	11	6,000
1866	36	12	6,000
1867	45	7	6,000
1868	43	7	6,000
Total ..	289	53	40,000

In the city of Turin are established thirty-six Benefit Societies, with a total number of 26,500 members. The first Society in point of age is the Pious Union of Journeymen Printers, founded in 1710, but of which the earliest document extant dates from 1738, when the Archbishop of Turin granted the Union permission to select St. Augustin for patron. The Regulations of the Society were revised in 1776, again in 1807, 1808, 1821, 1849, 1852, 1855, 1858, and, lastly, in 1864, and may be considered the models on which the greater part of the associations founded in Lombardy and Piedmont in the first half of this century were formed. Medical attendance, which is rarely guaranteed by Italian Societies, is among the benefits offered by the Pious Union of Printers, which contains 400 members.

The Pious Institute of Silk and Felt Hatmakers was founded in 1736, and is affiliated to the general union of hatmakers existing in Italy, France, Spain, Belgium, and nearly all Central Europe. All members of the craft are relieved by the Society without distinction of country. A practice worthy of notice as a remnant of the ancient "compagnonnage." Whenever a brother has no work and sets out on his travels to seek employment, his trade companions give him counsel and help. On his arrival in strange towns he makes himself known to his fellows by mystic signs and words. In Italy it is only among the hatters that a similar international union is known to exist.

The Turin Artizans' General Association ("Associazione Generale degli Operai di Torino") is the most important Association of its kind in Italy for number of members, capital, liberality of assistance, and multiplicity of aims. The principles of administration, as originally founded are said, however, to require revision in order to insure perfect security. Nearly all the other general societies of Italy are based on it. Founded in 1851, it numbers 8,000 members and has a reserve fund of 368,000 lire. More than 100,000 lire are annually distributed in assistance to its members. In 1854 the Society founded a Provident Committee with a capital of 1,000 lire, for the sale of provisions, &c., at cost price to members. Returns in 1863 showed that business was done to the annual amount of 1,000,000 lire.

The Female Artizans' General Association is

regulated in the same manner as the above, and counts 2,500 members. This Society also possesses a successful provident store for the sale of articles of first necessity.

The Benefit Society of the persons employed in the North Italian Railway Company deserves mention for the excellent regulations which govern it.

Throughout all the districts of Piedmont Working Men's Associations have arisen, but I have no statistics concerning them later than those of the 31st of December, 1862,* which I note here, with the same information regarding the Lombard Societies.

* "Statistica del Regno d'Italia. Società di Mutuo Soccorso. 1862." Ministero d'Agricoltura, Industria, e Commercio. Torino.

(Table 9.)—OFFICIAL RETURN of the Benefit Societies established in Piedmont and Lombardy, on the 31st December, 1862.

Region and Province.	No. of Associations.				No. of Members on 31st Dec., 1862.				Average Annual Contributions of Effective Members.		Average Daily Allowance to the Sick.		Average Annual Life Pensions.		Relief.					Capital of Societies on 31st Dec., 1862.
	Founded.					Effective.									Members relieved in 1862.		Days of Sickness.	Aged Persons Pensioned.	Widows and Orphans Assisted.	
	Before 1848.	Between 1848 and 1860.	1860 to 1863.	Total.	Honorary Benefactors, &c.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	For Sickness.	For being out of Work.				
									L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.	L. c.						Lire c.
Piedmont—																				
Alessandria ...	3	20	3	26	475	4,738	160	4,898	8 12	7 80	1 12	0 65	118 0	84 0	1,347	2	19,345	23	66	96,539 66
Cuneo	...	23	5	28	506	3,669	390	4,059	8 93	...	0 96	0 54	76 0	...	1,156	...	23,161	10	10	42,298 18
Novara	3	18	11	32	712	5,029	158	5,187	6 87	2 40	1 0	0 74	...	...	983	278	16,695	4	27	60,698 22
Turin*	9	31	7	47	306	18,352	1,507	19,859	14 64	11 56	1 7	0 92	354 30	220 92	10,865	148	145,644	29	118	557,742 1
Total Piedmont ...	15	92	26	133	1,999	31,788	2,215	34,003	10 11	9 31	1 4	0 69	228 13	163 58	14,351	428	204,845	66	221	757,278 7
Liguria	1	24	17	42	230	2,550	318	2,868							393	2	8,554	4	4	93,478 91
Lombardy—																				
Bergamo... ...	...	1	2	3	80	1,140	...	1,140	8 40	...	0 85	0 60	365 0	...	32	...	780	....	...	14,586 55
Brescia	...	1	11	12	406	2,477	1	2,478	13 83	9 70	1 14	0 54	401 48	186 35	743	...	6,902	...	...	42,913 42
Como	1	...	3	4	115	529	...	529	12 47	6 24	1 18	0 62	...	...	2	...	33	...	...	19,642 50
Cremona	...	...	4	4	365	1,153	27	1,180	14 24	7 80	1 31	0 67	557 0	365 0	125	...	2,014	...	...	21,680 49
Mantua†	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Milan	8	6	32	46	1,492	13,827	1,067	14,894	15 74	12 40	1 22	0 57	976 0	330 75	2,683	489	56,610	104	59	1,128,560 98
Pavia	...	11	3	14	573	3,541	103	3,644	9 77	9 16	1 1	0 71	200 0	100 0	880	...	16,561	12	18	47,079 76
Sondrio	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total Lombardy .	9	19	55	83	3,031	22,667	1,198	23,865	13 78	9 94	1 15	0 60	688 99	275 67	4,465	489	82,900	116	77	1,274,463 79

* The Table is incomplete as regards the Province of Turin. The City of Turin contained, in 1862, 31 Societies (besides 2 founded in that year), of which 14 only are entered in this Return. The 14 Societies not noted numbered about 2,000 members.

† In 1862 the Province of Mantua was not included in the Kingdom of Italy.

Among the principal Benefit Societies of Milan may be cited the Pious Institute of Printers ("Pio Istituto Tipografico"). Founded in 1804, the society passed through many vicissitudes until 1851, when its rules were successfully reformed, with provision for their further modification, should need arise. The entrance fees and periodical subscriptions are rationally graduated, so that members entering late in life have not undue advantage over those who have contributed for longer periods to the funds of the association. Relief is granted for sickness, inability to work, in the case of involuntary strikes, and is promised to widows and orphans of deceased members as soon as the society shall be able to afford it. It is the duty of members to endeavour to procure work for their comrades when out of employ, and to accept office in the society when called upon to do so. Arbitrators ("Pacieri") are appointed to remove causes of controversy and maintain harmony among the members. The funeral expenses of deceased members are provided for by an extraordinary subscription, and are not taken, as is usually the case, out of the general fund.

The Society of Domestic Servants numbers 680 members, with a capital of about 100,000 lire, and paid away, in 1867, 5,000 lire in relief. This society has established a Bank of Honour, a Savings' Bank for small economies, and a Co-operative Provision Store.

The most important Milanese association is the Artizans' General Society ("Società Generale degli Operai di Milano e dei Corpi Santi"), containing 4,474 members. In 1867 its capital amounted to 178,903 lire. This society formerly numbered 8,000 members, but the directors, with a vigour that did them credit, and which is but too little practised in Italy, struck off the register more than 3,000 members who had not paid up their subscriptions. The regulations of the association are similar to those of the General Society of Turin.

The Female Artizans' General Association was founded in 1862, and numbers 200 members.

Milan contains other societies, those of the Hotel and Tavern Waiters, Comb-makers, Watch-makers, Barbers, Upholsterers, Cab and Omnibus Drivers, &c., which it would take too long to notice in detail.

In the various provinces of Lombardy, among the best ordered societies are those of the Artizans of Lodi

and Cremona. The Society of Lodi has established a Bank of Honour, a Popular Loan Bank, circulating library, co-operative provison stores, Sunday and evening schools, and has promoted the formation of other Benefit Societies in the neighbourhood.

The Cremonese Artizans' Benefit Society numbers nearly 1,000 members, and revises its by-laws yearly. Its capital on the 31st December, 1867, was 54,658 lire. Taking example from this association, a prosperous Female Artizans' Society has been established, numbering 500 members. To its initiative, also, are owing the Popular Lending Library, the Society of Mutual Credit, and the Co-operative Provision Stores, which were established about 1868.

Societies exist, moreover, at Bergamo, Brescia, Castiglione delle Stiviere, Codogno (where a Bank of Honour has been formed), Lecco, Salò, Sondrio, and Treviglio.

At Mantua the Pious Union of St. Ursula, the origin of which is remote, formed within itself, in 1856, a Benefit Society, into which are received all persons who exercise arts, trades, or honest industries. Well-to-do persons are also admitted into the society as benefactors, but they only participate "in the treasure of prayers and suffrages offered up in the said Union."

Among the institutions for the benefit of the working classes co-operative societies are taking root in North Italy, greatly aided by the exertions of Professor Luzzati, of Milan, who has devoted his energies to this subject.*

In Milan, following the example of the masons of Paris, the Society of Masons has undertaken some building contracts on its own account. A like step has been taken by the Combmakers' Association, which has successfully established a national manufacture of combs. The societies of printers, porters, servants, stone-cutters, and washerwomen of Milan, the printers of Lodi, the carpenters and printers of Turin, &c., have all entered into co-operative undertakings, but I have no statistics of the success or the contrary with which these operations are conducted.

* Fano, "Della Carità Preventiva," &c., p. 587. "Co-operation has found amongst us its Schultze in Luzzati, who has become its energetic and successful apostle. Lombardy, Venetia, Emilia, Tuscany, inflamed in great part by his burning words, have given life to co-operative institutions. A newspaper entitled 'Co-operazione col Industria' is published at Milan by Luzzati himself."

Savings' Banks.—Savings' banks, though expanding under the influence of liberty, and successfully established in some regions, have not made the same progress in Italy as in other countries.

In Lombardy the saving power is more developed than in Piedmont, and the savings' bank (Cassa di Risparmio) of Milan,* established in 1823, is the most important institution of its kind in Italy, with branches extending throughout Lombardy, and possessing in 1866 more than half the capital of the savings' banks in the kingdom (138,672,472 lire out of 260,905,012 lire).

This establishment, however, is a real bank of credit as well as a savings' bank, receiving the capital of rich and poor alike. Since 1866 it has entered on a new sphere of action, with a separate guarantee fund of 4,000,000 lire, as one of the special banks of land credit instituted in Italy in that year.

In Piedmont savings' banks have not obtained similar currency. In some districts they have, however, been received with more favour than in others, and I am informed that the Bank of Bra, a town of some 13,000 inhabitants in the Province of Casseo, may be specially cited for its successful management and the support it has received.

The numbers of savings' banks founded in Piedmont and Lombardy from 1822, when the first Italian Bank rose in Venetia, until the end of 1866, the date of the last Government returns, is shown in the following Table:—

(Table 10.)

Region.	1822–30.	1831–40.	1841–50.	1851–60.	1861–66.	Total Banks, on 31st Dec., 1866.
Piedmont	1	1	4	8	...	14
Lombardy	8	1	4	5	23	41
Kingdom of Italy...	19	23	44	37	61	184

In Piedmont one bank was founded by a Commune, three were established by joint-stock companies, six by "Monte di Pietà," two by institutions ofcredit, and two by private persons.

* For the interest taken by the "Cassa di Risparmio" in the welfare of the Italian Benefit Societies, see *ante*, p. 630, under that heading.

In Lombardy the Milan Savings' Bank, which rose as a charitable Institution, founded thirty-eight branch banks; of the remaining two, one was established by a "Monte di Pietà," the other by a private person.

On the 31st December, 1866, the deposit accounts in the Lombard and Piedmontese Banks were as follows:—

(Table 11.)—RETURN of the Deposit Accounts in the Piedmontese and Lombard Savings Banks, on the 31st December, 1868.

Region.	Total.	From 1 to 50 Lire.	From 50 to 100 Lire.	From 100 to 300 Lire.	From 300 to 500 Lire.	From 500 to 1,000 Lire.	From 1,000 to 2,000 Lire.	From 2,000 Lire.	Not Classed.
Piedmont—									
Accounts	21,358	4,949	1,946	4,930	2,868	3,024	2,309	741	591
Amount .. lire	9,730,746	1,259,341	456,334	1,655,670	1,381,983	1,673,135	1,753,157	1,401,077	150,049
Lombardy—									
Accounts	159,496	171	282	213	100	116	88	27	158,499
Amount .. lire	130,197,601	3,072	17,102	38,186	41,304	82,008	107,399	120,343	129,788,187
Kingdom of Italy—									
Accounts	427,830	77,749	32,101	47,696	32,778	26,033	18,177	5,612	187,684
Amount .. lire	224,712,852	2,291,056	2,506,218	9,046,386	11,126,585	17,975,480	23,854,499	18,412,678	139,499,950

The accounts of the Milan Savings' Bank and its branches are not classed above. The following statement will serve, however, to show the average numbers of the deposits placed in these establishments:—

Deposits under 100 lire ..	..	..	34·85 per cent.
„ from 101 to 500 lire	..	..	61·14 „
„ above 500 lire ..	..	..	4·01 „

The professions of the depositors are approximately noted for Piedmont in the annexed Table. The only figures, however, which have a positive statistical value are those which refer to "Wards and Minors" and to "Benefit Societies." For Lombardy even a rough calculation on this head could not be made, the deposit books of the Milan Savings' Bank and its branches being "to bearer," and not nominal.

(Table 12.)—Occupations of Depositors in Piedmont.

Trades or Occupations.	Accounts ("libretti") on 31st December, 1866.		Deposits made in 1866.	
	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.
		Lire.		Lire.
Agriculturists	1,959	1,135,677	1,147	311,804
Artizans and workmen	6,182	2,779,484	7,779	1,017,121
Domestic servants	6,684	2,557,975	8,254	690,363
Employés...	695	340,495	1,074	179,282
Soldiers and sailors	514	287,819	539	98,360
Of various professions	4,585	2,367,934	4,815	1,028,984
Wards and minors	431	130,521	371	48,059
Benefit Societies...	213	97,720	381	51,558
Deposit books to bearer and unknown ...	95	33,131	2,736	515,286

The number of inhabitants for each deposit account of the total population, as well as only of the inhabitants of the communes in which savings' banks are established (partial population), and the percentage of the savings on the annual estimated income of real and other property, are noted in the subjoined Table:—

(Table 13.)—Number of Inhabitants, &c., for each Deposit Account in Piedmont and Lombardy.

Region.	Inhabitants per Deposit Account.		Average Value of Account per Inhabitant.		Estimated Value of Real and other Property, in Italian Lire.	Savings per 100 Lire of Income of Real and other Property.
	Total Population.	Partial Population.	Total Population.	Partial Population.		
Piedmont	129	23	3·52	20·06	222,578,583	4·37
Lombardy	21	4	39·94	197·57	278,796,699	46·70
Kingdom of Italy, 1866 ...	57	11	9·26	49·69	1,639,856,726	13·70

Professor Luzzati, to whom I have already alluded in connection with Co-operative Societies, is one of the warmest promoters of popular banks on the German system. These banks, by means of which the working man may obtain credit as the reward of saving, are springing up in Northern and Central Italy. As yet, however, they are thought to have been of more service to the smaller class of traders than to the artizans properly so called. From Dr. Maestri's "Italia Economica" for 1869, I note the following statistics of the principal popular banks existing in Lombardy in that year. No details are given of the popular banks in Piedmont, of which only three are mentioned as in existence.

(Table 14.)—POPULAR BANKS established in Lombardy in 1869.

Where Established.	Title of Bank.	No. of Shares.		Capital.		Bonds in Circulation in Italian Lire.
		Total.	Issued.	Total in Italian Lire.	Paid up in Italian Lire.	
Brescia	Banca Artigiana	...	...	...	25,015	...
Castiglione delle Stiviere	Banca Popolare	...	241	...	12,050	...
Como	Ditto	422	422	57,977	42,200	150,800
Cremona	Società Popolare di Mutuo Soccorso	4,000	...	200,000	136,122	...
Ditto	Banca Popolare	...	...	...	...	36,977
Lodi...	Ditto	1,667	934	100,000	50,405	75,458
Mantua	Ditto	...	1,304	65,200	50,620	199,400
Milan	Banca Popolare Mutuo ...	...	6,363	318,150	315,761	1,609,000

Of the Loan Banks of Codogno and Varese notices are wanting.
No details are given of the Popular Banks in Piedmont, of which only three are mentioned as in existence.

The foregoing remarks on the Associations which the spirit of modern times has evoked for the benefit of the working classes may be appropriately followed by a short notice of the hospitals and other charitable institutions with which Piedmont and Lombardy abound.*

The charitable institutions ("Opere Pie") in Italy are administered under the Law of the 3rd August, 1862, extending over the whole Kingdom, and taking the place of the earlier local regulations in force in the different provinces. The institutions are placed under the care of the respective Provincial Deputations, with

* "Statistica del Regno d'Italia. Le Opere Pie nel 1861. Compartimento del Piemonte." Firenze, 1868.
"Id., id. Compartimento della Lombardia." Firenze, 1868.

appeal to the King, who decides any controversy that may arise, the Council of State having been heard. The general superintendence of these establishments belongs to the Minister of the Interior.

The number and character of the charitable foundations in Piedmont and Lombardy, the amount of property they possessed, and their income and expenditure in 1861, are noted in the following Table :—

(Table 15.)—CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS in Piedmont and Lombardy in 1861.

Charitable Institutions.	PIEDMONT.				LOMBARDY.				Remarks.
	No.	Value of Property in 1861.	Income in 1861.	Expenditure in 1861.	No.	Value of Property in 1861.	Income in 1861.	Expenditure in 1861.	
		Lire.	Lire.	Lire.		Lire.	Lire.	Lire.	
Hospitals	149	66,745,069	3,829,210	3,615,825	109	111,753,943	6,954,086	7,274,309	The property of the Charitable Institutions of Piedmont consists of— Lire.
Lying-in hospitals	2	628,555	115,345	121,861	2	290,089	30,818	24,249	
Nursing institutes ("baliatici") ...	1	18,730	1,880	1,135	3	130,121	5,704	5,544	
Madhouses	2	3,563,525	570,746	565,563	6	2,136,210	292,537	656,398	
Deaf and dumb asylums	1	228,200	30,433	27,374	4	390,230	56,996	62,304	
Foundling hospitals	18	769,784	1,176,489	1,147,455	13	4,047,152	531,040	1,764,268	
Orphan asylums	26	10,294,497	577,512	560,195	38	22,867,816	1,184,286	1,289,253	
Poor-houses	51	10,415,564	880,769	904,525	36	18,886,036	1,576,717	1,640,246	
Refuges for young delinquents and discharged prisoners	2	28,000	32,288	31,059	4	1,616,716	132,578	133,122	
Educational foundations, retreats, &c.	17	4,902,392	456,022	451,288	23	8,524,811	723,461	695,870	
Infant asylums	78	2,698,743	322,968	320,867	20	1,091,657	103,903	102,104	
Schools, free scholarships, &c. ...	86	6,891,778	610,964	606,305	65	4,515,035	294,065	276,327	
Charitable trusts and foundations—									
Corn banks ("monti frumentarii").	7	11,967	804	386	83	314,295	14,834	7,173	
For granting loans on deposit with or without interest ("monti di pietà")	47	5,040,962	409,550	403,582	48	5,133,462	413,407	369,520	
For granting marriage portions ("monti di maritaggio")	131	2,570,053	128,751	124,272	479	4,408,767	227,656	209,481	
For almsgiving ("monti elemosina")	37	1,144,239	78,278	75,392	312	5,244,264	281,437	279,810	
For giving help to the poor in money	636	10,095,092	555,545	537,180	544	17,955,080	854,375	797,543	
" " sick poor ...	374	9,873,810	572,415	533,370	309	9,158,720	494,151	447,942	
" " poor in kind.	56	908,093	46,852	43,998	370	2,032,027	101,116	96,671	
For religious purposes	3	283,830	13,475	14,094	32	238,238	12,383	12,966	
For religious exercises and charity.	24	1,478,654	80,038	76,485	213	14,340,491	839,726	807,279	
Various	77	16,191,804	612,745	1,581,536	183	40,081,011	2,474,581	2,604,638	
Institute for the blind...	...	...	...	...	1	708,304	41,772	40,682	
Total	1,825	154,783,341	12,103,079	1,740,747	2,902	275,864,475	17,641,629	19,537,694	

Houses and lands of the value of ...	87,720,576
Public funds	25,824,855
Capital, interest, &c. ...	32,905,920
Various	5,568,132
Moveable property (furniture, &c.)	2,766,858
Total ...	154,783,341

The hospitals, hospices, and poor-houses are the principal possessors of real property.

The property of the Lombard Institutes consists of—

	Lire.
Houses and lands of the value of ...	170,255,694
Public funds	17,226,861
Capital, interest, &c. ...	59,997,853
Various	23,999,026
Moveable property ...	4,385,041
Total ...	275,864,475

Of the 1,825 pious foundations noted in the above Table, as existing in Piedmont in 1861, 96 took their rise between the twelfth and sixteenth centuries (inclusive), 713 in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, 474 between 1800 and 1848, 141 from 1848 to 1861, and 401 were established at unknown dates.

The total number of person relieved in 1861 appears to have been 772,944, of whom 92,298 were admitted into the different institutions. I have no statistics of the proportion between the sexes of the persons relieved. The per-centage of persons receiving help to the total population in the different provinces was:—for Alessandria, 15 per cent.; Cuneo, 23 per cent.; Novara, 20 per cent.; and for Turin, 44 per cent.

The total number of beds in the various hospitals and hospices in 1861 was 14,047, of which 12,040 were free.

The charitable institutions of Lombardy as shown in the Table, which does not include the Province of Mantua, numbered 2,092 in 1861. The dates of their foundations are as follows: 1 (a Monte di Pietà) in the eleventh century; 260 between the twelfth and sixteenth centuries (inclusive); 827 during the seventeeenth and eighteenth centuries; 973 between 1800 and 1848; 286 between 1848 and 1861; and 555 established at unknown periods.

The institutions principally established in the present century, were for the purpose of granting marriage portions, giving alms to the poor, and rendering assistance to the sick.

The total number of persons assisted in 1861 appears to have been about 987,399;* the per-centage of persons receiving help, to the total population in the different provinces was:—for Bergamo, 48 per cent.; Brescia, 37 per cent.; Como, 23 per cent.; Cremona, 35 per cent.; Milan, 40 per cent.; Pavia, 14 per cent.; and, Sondrio, 14 per cent. The beds in the various hospitals numbered 16,787, of which 13,611 were free.

I have been unable to obtain any reliable information as to the annual sums lent on deposit in the different Monti di Pietà, except as regards that of Turin, of which I annex a statement below:—

* Including, both for Piedmont and Lombardy, the persons applying for loans on deposit at the "Monti di Pietà."

(Table 16.)

Year.	Number of Deposits.	Sums Advanced.
		Lire. c.
1861	196,940	3,928,200 25
1862	214,053	3,944,207 50
1863	191,776	3,731,347 25
1864	186,874	3,880,287 25
1865*	189,950	3,885,742 75
1866*	189,295	3,777,371 75
1867*	202,457	3,606,965 25
1868*	175,022	3,214,489 0

Interest charged at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum.

Any description of the condition of the working classes would be incomplete without some notice of their state of education. The system of public instruction in Italy, based on the Law of the 13th November, 1859, is divided into three great branches. The first includes the Universities, and a few special upper schools; the second contains the classical, and middle technical schools, linking the first division to the third, which embraces elementary, technical, and general instruction. To this last sub-division alone it is my intention to refer here.

In 1866, the number of illiterate persons in Piedmont and Lombardy, as compared with the rest of Italy, is shown in the following Table:—

* Barrico. "Torino descritta," 1869, vol. i, p. 741.

(Table 17.)

Region and Province.	Illiterate, per Cent. of.				
	Married Couples.		Total Population in 1861.		Conscripts.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
Piedmont—					
Alessandria	40	69	56	76	38
Cuneo	37	66	54	72	38
Novara	28	59	46	64	30
Turin	21	47	42	56	21
Average Piedmont ..	30	59	49	66	31
*Lombardy—					
Bergamo	29	44	50	56	46
Brescia	28	56	56	65	51
Como	22	52	51	66	28
Cremona	49	70	64	73	49
Milan	39	57	54	59	56
Pavia	45	70	62	64	50
Sondrio	26	54	50	64	29
Average Lombardy ..	37	58	55	65	47
Kingdom of Italy average ..	60	78	72	82	64

* Exclusive of Province of Mantua. From a Return presented to Chamber of Deputies in 1869.

The average, though much still remains to be done, is greatly to the advantage of the northern provinces over the general mean of the whole Kingdom, which is at its lowest in Basilicata, where, in 1866, 85 per cent. of the men, and 97 per cent. of the women, were unable to read or write.

In Piedmont, the advance in general elementary education, dates from the Education Act of 1848, and may be clearly followed in the annexed Table, which shows the increase in the elementary schools of the city of Turin,* from that date to the present time:—

* "Istruzione Popolare in Torini." Monografia del T. C. P. Baricco, 1865, and later Returns.

(Table 18.)

Year.	Elementary Day Schools.			Remarks.
	Classes.			
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	
1848–49 ..	25	..	25	The total expenditure of the City of Turin on Secondary and Elementary Instruction was, in 1848, 46,522 lire; in 1865, 521,841 lire; and in 1869, 641,340 lire.
1852–53 ..	56	25	81	
1857–58 ..	77	49	126	
1862–63 ..	87	73	160	
870–71 ..	112	111	223	

The elementary public schools, which are almost entirely supported at the expense of the communes, are free to all, certain sanitary regulations alone being attached to the admission of the pupils, who, moreover, are required to provide themselves with the books, &c., to be used in the course of instruction. Education is not, as yet, compulsory in Italy, although the question has been mooted, as well as the advantage of establishing small school fees. Children are received at six years of age, and the ordinary course of study is calculated to extend over four years. The classes are four in number; the first or lowest, being divided into two sections.

In the lower division of the schools (1st and 2nd classes), the official course of instruction comprises religion (catechism and sacred history), reading, writing, elementary arithmetic, the rudiments of Italian, and first notions of the metric system.

In the upper division (3rd and 4th classes), the rudiments learnt above are further developed; and, in addition, instruction is given in the rules of Italian composition, bookkeeping, elementary geography, the chief facts in the history of Italy, and the elements of the natural and physical sciences,—chiefly in their application to the ordinary uses of life.

To the above are added, in the boys' schools, the elements of geometry and linear drawing; in the girls' schools, needlework, both plain and fine, knitting, &c., according to the taste of the pupil.

The general programme appears, on the whole, to be carefully carried out in the schools belonging to the

City of Turin, in which attention is also given to singing and gymnastic exercises. Instruction is given on the black board, and by conversational teaching; and much of the success of the system must depend upon the capacity of the teachers, who, in this city, appear to be very carefully selected.

The stipends of the masters and mistresses of the elementary schools in Piedmont and Lombardy, for the scholastic year 1862-63, are noted below :—

(Table 19.)

Region.	Stipends of Masters.				Stipends of Mistresses.			
	Minimum.	Maximum.	Average of Minimum.	Average of Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Average of Minimum.	Average of Maximum.
	Lire.	Lire.	Lire.	Lire.	Lire.	Lire.	Lire.	Lire.
Piedmont	18	1,800	361	621	20	1,200	280	567
Lombardy...	22	2,200	284	532	30	1,600	222	427
Kingdom of Italy	18	2,600	339	561	20	1,600	265	469

The following Table shows the number of schools existing in Piedmont and Lombardy in the years 1862-63, 1865-66, and 1867-68 respectively, together with the number of scholars attending and teachers employed in the same :—*

* "Annuario dell'Istruzione Pubblica," 1864-65, and 1868-69. "L'Italia Economica nel 1869." P. Maestri, p. 161.

(Table 20.)—SHOWING the number of Elementary Schools existing in Piedmont and Lombardy in the Scholastic Years 1862-63, 1865-66, and 1867-68 respectively.

Region.	Scholastic Year.	Schools.			Scholars.			Teachers.		
		Total.	Public.	Private.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Piedmont	1862–63..	6,985	6,499	486	317,588	175,962	141,626	7,025	4,098	2,927
,, ...	1865–66..	6,873	6,539	334	327,563	178,992	148,571	6,961	4,054	2,907
,, ...	1867–68..	6,915	..	..	367,154	201,129	166,025	7,398	4,155	3,243
Lombardy (exclusive of Mantua)	1862–63..	6,892	5,747	1,145	316,902	161,953	154,949	7,856	3,664	4,192
,, ,, ,, ..	1865–66..	6,772	5,957	815	314,502	163,527	150,975	6,945	3,390	3,555
,, (inclusive of Mantua).	1867–68..	6,915	..	..	339,681	175,353	164,328	7,322	3,463	3,859
Kingdom of Italy	1867–68..	36,323	..	..	1,484,532	869,477	615,055	37,991	..	..

In summer the number of pupils attending the schools decreases greatly. In 1865-66, in Piedmont, out of a total of 327,563 scholars, 174,215 only attended school during the summer months. In Lombardy the attendants at school in summer were 196,830 out of 314,502 scholars.

The children of working men, even when they are able to complete their elementary studies, can rarely, if ever, hope to continue their education unassisted after twelve years of age. In their aid, therefore, popular industrial schools and schools of design have been established by local associations, both public and private.

These schools are of various orders. Some are intended for young apprentices, who are received into the establishments when they have finished their elementary studies. The course of instruction lasts one or two years, and the pupils are taught elementary chemistry applied to some industry, practical geometry for the exercise of a trade, or ornamental or geometrical drawing applied to a special subject. Others are, more properly, schools for adults, or, at least, for artizans in work, who may be anxious to devote their leisure hours to self-improvement. They are either evening or Sunday schools, and are attended more particularly by masons, carpenters, and mechanics. These schools contain the germs of much future good. In the city of Turin they are well managed and well attended. In the provinces, from various local causes, they have not, as yet, given all the results expected from them.

The number of the industrial schools in Piedmont and Lombardy, more numerous than in the other divisions of the kingdom, are noted below :—

(Table 21.)

Region.	Scholastic Year 1868–69.			
	Number of Schools.	Number of Masters.	Number of Scholars.	Annual Expenditure.
				Lire.
Piedmont.. ..	40	96	3,137	348,242
Lombardy . ..	32	89	2,694	465,588
Kingdom of Italy ..	154	567	13,329	1,417,023

Not including Elementary Evening Schools. After Lombardy comes Venetia, with 31 schools and 2,508 scholars.

Infant Schools.—While, however, the adults are cared for, the poorer children of the community under six years of age have not been forgotten. Infant schools, at which children of from two and a half to five years of age are taught the first rudiments of education under patient and intelligent mistresses, are spreading over the country.

The Society of the Infant Schools of Turin has been established thirty years. Seven asylums, in 1869, received 2,102 children of both sexes, to whom a good soup is daily given.* The children are brought to the school between 7 and 8 A.M., and fetched away between 4 and 5 in the afternoon.

The number of infant asylums in Piedmont and Lombardy, as compared with all Italy, is shown in the following Table taken from official statistics recently published.†

* "Cenni sulla Società delle Scuole Infantili di Torino del P. Baricco;" 1869. The total number of Infant Schools in the City of Turin in the Scholastic year 1868–69 was 19, with 4,141 pupils.

† Gazzetta Ufficiale, No. 353, December 24, 1870.

(Table 22.)—SHOWING the Total Number of Infant Asylums in Piedmont and Lombardy in 1869.

Province and Region.	Number of Asylums.				Years of Foundation.			Pupils.			Mistresses.	Assistants (Females).	Income.	Expenditure.
	Total.	Male.	Female.	Mixed.	1830-50.	1850-60.	1860-69.	Total.	Males.	Females.				
Piedmont—													Lire.	Lire.
Alessandria	41	...	...	41	5	13	23	6,581	3,435	3,146	64	63	108,572	103,817
Cuneo	42	...	...	42	7	19	16	5,942	2,924	3,018	95	39	130,482	113,499
Novara	45	...	...	45	9	19	17	6,099	3,017	3,082	112	26	154,125	139,662
Turin	110	...	4	106	23	37	50	14,261	7,256	7,005	178	80	246,551	246,466
Total	238	...	4	234	44	88	106	32,883	16,632	16,251	449	208	639,730	603,444
Lombardy—														
Bergamo	18	1	2	15	6	1	11	2,450	1,275	1,175	38	14	17,951	17,925
Brescia	15	...	2	13	1	2	12	1,487	733	754	22	13	28,560	26,299
Como	16	...	...	16	1	1	14	1,555	753	802	28	6	25,502	25,210
Cremona	55	3	3	49	7	1	47	6,103	3,169	2,934	59	39	60,531	50,359
Mantua	48	3	2	43	10	...	38	3,612	1,874	1,738	48	24	38,804	37,487
Milan	35	1	...	34	9	1	25	5,327	2,700	2,627	55	54	109,953	95,113
Pavia	25	1	...	24	6	10	9	4,362	2,190	2,172	33	39	52,618	52,280
Sondrio	2	...	...	2	...	...	2	191	89	102	3	4	6,642	5,351
Total	214	9	9	196	40	16	158	25,087	12,783	12,304	286	193	340,561	310,024
Kingdom of Italy	853	51	39	763	140	121	592	102,818	52,797	50,021	1,522	902	2,433,619	2,288,187

At Turin six "crêches" for infants in arms have been established, at which 230 babies were received in 1869.

Of the various charitable institutions for the education of the poor, reformatories, &c., I attempt no notice here; their number may be seen in the Table of the Charitable Foundations of Piedmont and Lombardy (Sheet 13). To recite their names would be without interest; to enter into a detailed description of any of them would be beyond the present subject.

Circulating Libraries.—Among other institutions for the benefit of the working classes, circulating libraries would appear to be obtaining a hold on the country. I am told, however, that sufficient care is not always taken in the choice of the books with which they are furnished.

Conclusion.—I regret that I am compelled to bring my Report to a close without drawing up the tabulated forms required by the Earl of Clarendon's Circular of the 7th of June, 1870. The information I have been able to obtain on the points to which the forms more especially refer is not sufficiently positive to enable me to fill in the Tables to any practical advantage.

I subjoin a Table of the English equivalents of the weights and measures used in this Report. It is difficult, owing to the paper currency now in force in Italy, accurately to turn local prices into English money. With regard to small amounts the exchange may be taken, for practical purposes, at 25 lire to the pound sterling; for larger sums the rate of exchange of the day must be used, and this has oscillated, since 1866, between 26 and 28 lire per pound sterling.

(Table 23.)

Foreign Weights and Measures.	English Weights and Measures.
1 Hectolitre (liquid measure) ..	22·01 imperial gallons.
1 „ (dry measure) ..	2·75 imperial bushels.
1 Quintal	220·46 lbs. avoirdupois.
1 Kilogram	2·22 „ „
1 Myriagram	22·01 „ „
1 Metre	39·37 inches.
1 Kilometre	1093·63 yards.

(Signed) D. E. C.

Turin, February 1871.

P.S.—I am greatly indebted to Mr. Vice-Consul Kelly for much valuable information forwarded to me from Milan. My best thanks are also due to M. Martinetti, of the Turin Artizans' General Association, and to several gentlemen connected with industrial pursuits, for great assistance most courteously afforded me in the prosecution of my inquiries.

D. E. C.

ROME.

Consul Severn to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 29.)

My Lord, *Rome, November* 23, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to submit to your Lordship my Report on the lower classes of the Roman people, but I beg to explain that as it was written three months before the siege of Rome, so the subsequent changes must remain for another Report showing the real effect of the change on the people.

I have, &c.

(Signed) JOSEPH SEVERN.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Severn on the Position of the Roman Peasant and the Artisan.

THE lower classes in the city of Rome and the Campagna are decidedly in a favourable position when compared with the same classes in northern countries, not only as to the productiveness of the soil, and the mildness of the climate in winter, but also that the Papal Government and even the laws extend to the working-classes certain advantages which give a kind of permanence to labour and protect the work-people against the caprice and often the intolerance of their employers.

In the agricultural labours the Romans are almost wholly occupied with the cultivation of the vine and all the various vegetables and fruits. But the harvest labours are never performed by the Romans, not even in the extremities of seasons; on all occasions the Neapolitan peasants are called to the task, and even when these fail the Papal soldiers are employed, and do their work well.

This disinclination of the Romans to the harvest work is certainly a traditional pride, for the same apathy extends to trade and commercial affairs, and the natives allow foreigners and strangers to usurp these profits with impunity.

The sole permanent positions of the actual Romans may be found in the butcher, the mason, and the bricklayer; most other trades are exercised by Italian strangers; the bakers are all from Lombardy and Switzerland; and even the costly decorations of the church are in the hands of the Jews. As regards the trade and commerce of Rome it is chiefly confined also to the Jews, who, notwithstanding the impositions of the church, make large fortunes.

The Romans excel chiefly as masons and bricklayers, indeed, to judge from the solidity and beauty in every department of building, it may be well inferred that the modern Romans inherit the gift of building from the ancient, for they have a pride in it.

And it is a matter of surprise how they learn the few trades in which decidedly they excel, for there is no kind of apprenticeship or binding power in the master. Formerly, in the last twenty years, there was a valuable institution in the enormous building of St. Michele, wherein were taught all the essential trades, arts, and sciences, by the best Professors in every department.

This fine institution extended to both male and female students, and comprised generally from 5,000 to 6,000; once a year during Lent the various productions were offered for sale, and the two classes of students were instructed in the musical department to produce serious operas, both vocal and instrumental, in which was evinced sometimes very fine talent.

In the province of engraving two artists of great European reputation, Mercuri and Calamatta, were educated in this school. This splended institution cannot be said to exist any longer, for the disturbances of the time have by degrees converted it into a political prison, and neither the opera or the sale of works exist any longer.

The late English Cardinal Weld established here a class of youths for the cultivation of the vocal parts of both soprano and tenor in the exercise of Church music; and certainly during the life-time of his Eminence (who was a good musician himself), nothing could be more successful; but this all passed away with his lamented death. It is stated as an excuse that the music of the Roman Catholic Church is so much more difficult than the music of the Protestant English Cathedral. But the loss of this institution is to be much regretted, as the

Romans have fine voices and excel in the streets; but in the theatres, as there is no music college, the performance is very generally bad and unattractive.

The very fine quality of the Roman voices is attributed to the custom of the mothers swaddling their babies, and when the mothers are employed out of doors the baby is suspended from its back to a nail in the wall and allowed to cry for several hours together, which continued act of crying exercises and forms the vocal organs in an extraordinary way.

As regards the proportion of the Roman working classes to the population generally it can not be much above a fourth, as so large a number is in the employment of the State; just one quarter may be considered persons of property, condemned to the "dolce far niente" unless they chance to incline to the sacerdotal career.

The very poorest classes are ill lodged on the ground-floors, which, on account of the singular dampness of the soil, are productive of the tertian ague, for most of the Roman cellars are full of water at all times, and no doubt the evaporation goes on all through the house; this will account for particular houses being identified as of malaria. Of course this does not apply to every house, as in situations where there is good ventilation there is no danger.

Added to this evil of damp there are no public baths to counteract it, as in ancient Rome. Within these very walls there were 800 public baths, and the poor classes could get a warm bath for three-farthings; in this way the ancient Romans were not subject to the fever, but, on the contrary, were a strong race of people; and they made a rule to establish in all the conquered countries the Roman bath (in most respect similar to the modern Turkish bath). Of these there are many remains even in England. This great drawback on modern Rome will soon be remedied by the introduction of the Aqua Marcia, which, coming from a mountain lake, will supply the Roman houses up to the top floors.

A startling fact that Rome is badly and scantily supplied with water, the famous Trevi is on so low a level that the Seven Hills are entirely without, and the many splendid fountains are most of them in the lower parts of the city. As regards drinking water the Trevi is the only one to be trusted. When the baths are set up in

every parish on the plan of London (at the price of 2*d.*), no doubt the fever which is now so prevalent will wholly vanish, as it did in the antique period.

In Rome it would seem that every illness turns into fever, which, in the occupations of the people, particularly betwixt master and man, is the source of great difficulties; for this reason the employer prefers what is called piece work.

The ordinary wages of the working man is 3 pauls (17*d.*) a-day, and the women get 2 pauls (10*d.*); on good occasions, when there are heavy weights to carry, it is a strange sight to see handsome young women acting as bricklayers' labourers. They were extensively employed in the making of the railways. It may be explained that the women, being accustomed to carry the heavy pitcher of water (three gallons) on their heads, evince a porter's strength beyond that of the men.

As there is little or no commerce so the employment of foreign labour is not required; indeed, some years since there was an attempt to employ Irishmen in the cultivation of the Desert Campagna of Rome, but it was altogether a failure.

Perhaps now, with the great advantage of agricultural machinery, an opening might be presented.

On several occasional visits, when inquiry has been made as to why various parts of the Compagna remain uncultivated, the farmers have explained that the presence of brigands makes it impossible for them to visit their own property with impunity. This applies to more than two-thirds of the Campagna. If this evil could be overcome no doubt large quantities of grain could be even produced for the English market; and not in grain alone, but in many productions both vegetable and mineral, for nature has been so bountiful that the Roman territory ought to be the richest country in the world. The famous Neapolitan poet Rossetti descanted on the great misfortune that St. Peter had in not being an agriculturist instead of a fisherman.

At present it often occurs from year to year that the Papal Government has to import largely in grain, whilst those barren districts of excellent soil are left a prey to malaria, or, if cultivated, to brigands. Indeed, it must be confessed that there is little or no protection for landed proprietors. Wages to the agricultural peasants seldom rise to more than 3 pauls (15*d.*), except in

the harvest, when it rises to 4*s*. 6*d*. a-day; and in the mountain districts, where there is both asphaltum and sulphur, 1 paul (5*d*.) would be ample.

These resources of nature remain almost unemployed, and the peasants in various mountain places are in a starving condition.

One great experiment was made twelve years ago at Tolfa, a small mountain town thirty-five miles south from Rome, where an extensive mountain of iron exists. Here a foundry with shares was set up, the iron being of first-rate quality, but the usual misfortune which attends every thing Roman was here soon apparent, for after great labour of search no coal has been found, and just now the well-built foundry has been changed into a kiln for making fire-bricks. Tolfa abounds in very fine clays of every description.

Of late years an enterprising and talented English merchant, Mr. Welby, has succeeded in giving some little life to the Roman commerce, and has now the charge of the Tiber under the Government with two steamers, his own property. There cannot be a question that the Pontifical States would present a very advantageous field of speculation for an Englishman of capital, both from the richness of the materials as well as the cheapness of labour.

The purchase power of money is about one-third more than in England, that is, 100*l*. may go as far even as 150*l*.; but these advantages are daily diminishing from the reigning apathy, and perhaps an inclination in the Roman gentry to prefer foreign productions, whilst there are so many native articles of admirable quality and great cheapness.

It has often been suggested to set up an establishment in the English quarter for the sale of Roman productions, but so far no one has had the courage to undertake it. The Romans produce excellent silk and woollen cloths (though not superfine); and the black sheep wool is made into a brown cloth of very beautiful tint without dyeing, and is adopted for the monks' tunics.

At present the chief occupation in Rome is in building. The present Pope has set the fashion by producing many public works of great utility, which has extended to private enterprise, so that in remote parts of the city

fine houses may be seen rising in numbers; and on the eastern side of Rome a new town is being formed with the aid of the Marcian water.

The Roman masons and bricklayers have decidedly a pride and pleasure in their work, which in every example is really well executed. They have unusually good materials, and by excavations always find the precious marbles.

In the modern building of the Cathedral of St. Paul's outside the walls, there were from 500 to 600 galley slaves employed with success, and it was often pointed out to strangers that these criminals, having served their time, became respectable workmen, and were thus redeemed from crime. The food of the lower classes of Romans is very simple, and does not often extend to animal production; but they have good bread, at the cost of one-third less than English bread. All the kinds of farinaceous food are good, and comparatively cheap, and quite sufficient, with the aid of the climate, to give sufficient strength to the working classes.

The sole article of adulteration is the wine, which is a disgrace to Rome, having several poisonous ingredients, particularly copper, mixed with it. It is no uncommon sight to catch the vintners stirring up hundreds of copper coins in the hogsheads of wine; another serious adulteration exists in the cooking utensils, which are mostly of copper, and from the frequent want of tinning did once produce alarming illness; but this has now been partly remedied by officers appointed to examine weekly all the copper vessels of the eating-houses.

Most labour begins at the early hour of 6 A.M., and finishes at 6 P.M., but from two to three hours are allowed for the dinner and siesta, particularly during the hot weather. The first mass begins at 5 A.M. As regards the diet of foreigners, the use of brandy is always more or less dangerous. Beer has been of late years introduced successfully, though it has not become general.

Most foreigners find it advantageous to wear flannel as a security against the changes of climate; and it is for this reason that the monastic orders are but little troubled with fever.

The cultivation of cotton was not found possible on account of the want of hands.

As regards the adulteration of food and drink, perhaps the wine is the only really disgraceful thing in Rome; all kinds of poisonous matters are used in correcting the dirty and idle manner of making it.

The food in the markets is well looked after every day by official officers; and during the cattle disease nothing could surpass the admirable rules adopted by the Government.

The officials attend also to the weights and measures in the markets and shops, so that there exists little or no complaint on this head.

The fish are mostly brought from Porto d'Anzio, twenty-eight miles from Rome, and are of good quality but dear. The fresh-water fish from the Tiber are not considered good, and are mostly eaten by the lower orders.

The agricultural produce is excellent in all its branches, and cheap, and forming a large portion of the food of the poor. The fruit is also very abundant and good, and generally cheap.

Many excellent laws were passed four years ago, after the cattle disease, for the regulation of the markets; and the lower classes carry the appearance of good and wholesome living.

The present population of the Roman States is 684,000.

As these remarks were made during last summer I have now to notice the great changes caused by the siege of Rome on the 20th September last, by which the Roman people not only gained their political rights, but also have the means presented to them of cultivation, of education, and even of commerce. The present Government of the King of Italy has already set up an agricultural society, which is now actually working with English machinery; and as regards the brigands under the new order of things, they have disappeared. No doubt, means will be also found to work the great mines of asphaltum, sulphur, and even borax.

And as regards the adulteration of wine the Government has now adopted a plan which will be sure to effect a great improvement. A square (consolazione) is selected for the sale of wine, to be tasted by official judges before it is admitted for sale; nothing less than

6-gallon casks is allowed, and no drinking permitted on the spot. In this way the scandalous power of the vintner will be undermined, and the poorer classes supplied with a pure, cheap, and good wine.

As regards education, the fine institution of San Michele, which had been converted into a political prison, is now restored to its original purpose of education. Every art and science, every profession, every trade, and even commerce will now be taught by the best masters, and I believe at the old price of 4*s.* 2*d.* a-month. The building will contain up to 6,000 children.

And as to commerce, the restrictions being now removed of passports, of customs duties, and of spies, no doubt, in a country where nature has been so bountiful, a fine commerce will spring up, for already the people begin to show great signs of activity, as they have amongst them the industrious strangers from all parts of Italy, with their commodities for sale, by which the stately dignity of the Romans is rather severely taxed. As yet the tariff of the Italian taxes is not published, so that the comparison with the Papal taxes cannot be assumed, but the duty on articles of food formerly levied at the gates has been abolished.

The national guard now being embodied is regarded with great enthusiasm by the Romans, and although the foreign residents are so numerous, yet they have not been included.

The poorer classes begin to return to the good old customs: at night, the fine voices are heard again; and the gay October festival on the Sundays and Thursdays has been resumed after a suppression of twenty years.

In the midst of the very favourable changes the Roman railways form the only subject of regret as regards the working classes, either that the charges are too heavy, or the responsibility for property does not exist, but the fact is strange that the wine is still conveyed in the old carts, and luggage is not trusted. Robberies are frequent on the lines, and even in the stations, and there is never any redress in compensation or even explanation.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
Labour:—			
The Roman common labourer receives daily	3 pauls, or 1½ franc	1*s.* 2½*d.* .	Equal to 2*s.*
The superior workman	5 pauls, or 2½ francs	2*s.* 3*d.* ..	,, 3*s.*
Provisions:—			
Beef, 12 ozs. to the pound . ..	9 soldi	About 4*d.*	
Veal	12 soldi .. .	,, 5½*d.*	
Turkeys	3½ and 4 francs ..	..	
Game generally, per pound	13 soldi	About 6*d.*	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The farinaceous food is of excellent quality, and bread and maccaroni pure and wholesome.

The lower classes almost live on it; in the middle classes there is great consumption of pork, although it is injurious to health.

Clothing.—The Roman clothing of the lower classes is velveteen, of which they are proud. They never wear left-off clothes; in the winter they adopt thick flannel next the skin, but none in the summer.

Lodging.—The lodgings of the poor Romans are mostly on the ground floor and very damp; no underground rooms (equivalent to our kitchens) would be habitable in any way; the cellars are full of water. Lodging is expensive in Rome; the poor man pays near 2*s.* a week for a single room.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—All matters of building are really well and tastefully executed, the materials are of fine quality, and it is surprising, in repairs and alterations, what admirable works are produced.

(Signed) JOSEPH SEVERN.

Rome, November 23, 1870.

VENICE.

Consul-General Perry to Earl Granville.—(Received December 7.)

My Lord, *Venice, December* 2, 1870.

In conformity with the instructions contained in the Earl of Clarendon's Circular despatches of April 30th and June 7th last, transmitted to me by Mr. Arthur Otway in his Circular despatch of June 7th, I have herewith the honour to inclose to your Lordship a Report on the position of artizans and the working classes in the district of this Consulate, together with Tables, as prescribed in the instructions, showing the rates of wages paid to the several classes of workmen, the purchase-power of money here compared with England, the prices of the principal articles of food, and information on matters regarding health, &c.

I regret the difficulty of obtaining authentic information on these points from the want of statistical works of the Chamber of Commerce, or Government, on the subject; and this difficulty has caused some delay in sending this Report, as I was obliged to collect the information from other sources, principally from Professor Alberto Dr. Errera, Secretary to the Venice Committee of the Workman's International Exhibition, who, at the instigation of the Royal Institute of Arts, has taken a deep and laudable interest in the industrial welfare of this country, often visiting the principal seats of industry, making himself well acquainted with the habits and condition of the workmen, and having been instrumental in instituting schools for their instruction in drawing and chemistry, has only just published a voluminous and laborious statistical work, which obtained a premium from the Royal Institution. He has sent me a copy of this work, which, if it be your Lordship's wish, I shall be happy to forward to the Foreign Office.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WILLIAM PERRY.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul-General Perry respecting the Condition of Artisans and the Working Classes in the City and Province of Venice.

In Venice there are no statistical works respecting workmen and their wages. From the fall of the ancient Republic to the present period they are wanting. The Chambers of Commerce in past times were deterred from stating the truth to the Austrian Government by the fear of imposts and abuses, and the Austrian Government was, therefore, unable to compile a correct statistical work on Venetia.

In this state of things it would have been impossible to give with exactitude the information desired by the Earl of Clarendon, but fortunately the Royal Institution of Arts and Sciences has afforded the means of doing so. The most eminent promoters of industrial enterprise in Italy, Signor Rossi, Senator, Professor Messadaglia, of the University of Padua, an eminent economist, the Deputy Lamberti, and Count Cavalli proposed that the Royal Institution should offer a premium for the best statistical and economical work on this subject, to be published at the expense of the Institution; and, after a labour of four years, Professor Alberto Dr. Errera presented a work of 1,500 pages, with 200 statistical tables, which obtained the prize. It is from this voluminous work, highly eulogized by Senator Rossi and Professor Lamberti, as well as from other works of Professor Dr. Errera, and from researches made by him at the request of this Consulate, that the following information has been deduced, and copies of such works can be sent, should further details be desired.

1. As regards the general demand as to the moral state of the workmen, it must be said that they are of good morals, sober, and provident; they take much pride in their work, but they study little, and are unacquainted with drawing or chemistry, and are somewhat prejudiced in favour of the technical processes of ancient date. Now, however, they frequent the schools for drawing and chemistry, which in towns and villages are adjacent to the manufactories or workshops. In general they execute varied, different, and new works with good will; they are of various and multiform genius; and above all

it must be remarked that the system of dividing labour, as done in England, is not in use. Here the same workman does many things, and passes from one trade to another which has an affinity with it, and, moreover, he contents himself with very low wages.

There are good dwellings for workmen, but at present they are few in number, and the labouring classes generally live in poor, unwholesome habitations, damp, with bad odours, and badly furnished. A company has, however, been instituted in Venice, and is now in operation, for the purpose of building houses for the labouring classes which will greatly ameliorate their condition. In the great manufacturing districts of the provinces the workmen, on the contrary, inhabit wholesome, dry dwellings, contiguous to the manufactories. The best are in the province of Vicenza, at Lugo (Nodan's paper-mill), at Schio (Rossi's cloth manufactory). These are clean, dry, large, and convenient habitations; the workman pays the rent, and may eventually become the proprietor.

We shall have given an exact idea by saying that in general the workman lives badly in the cities and well in the country, as regards habitation, and that the principal industrial establishments are in the country.

There appear to be no other industries in which the English workman could be employed than those of iron-founders, ship-builders, and glass and earthenware manufactories.

Condition of the Workmen.

The English workman would find in the opifices of the provinces of Venice the following advantages:—

1. Food is good and cheap.
2. The air is salubrious.
3. The dwellings for workmen in the provinces are good, clean, and dry, and in Venice a company has been instituted, and is in operation, for building houses for the labouring classes.
4. Much benevolence in the proprietors of the establishments in general.
5. The Provident Institution annexed to the establishments in the event of sickness, old age, or impotence.
6. Kindness and general good feeling on the part of their native fellow workmen.

The disadvantages would be:—

1. Low wages.
2. Little order in the workshop.
3. Uncertainty as regards the permanency of the work, from those eventualities which in all countries lead to the partial or total suspension of labour.

This in general, but there are industries which but rarely offer these advantageous conditions, that is to say, there are industries in which the foreign workman could not get employment except on the same terms as the native, because they do not require any particular ability which is not to be found in the native workman (for example, the manufactories of paper, printing, tanning of hides, coach-making, &c.); but in the country there are certain other industries in which the foreign workman is much better paid than the native for his superior ability in a particular work, with which the Italian workman is little acquainted. Thus, for example, in the art of glass-making, in making bottles according to the usage of France. French workmen are well paid in the Italian glass works, and in one of them (at Ludi, on the Lago Maggiore) all the workmen are French, who return to their country when the work of the furnace is completed, and come back when it is again resumed.

Foreign workmen are likewise employed in the iron works. In the founderies there are foreign workmen who are paid the same as the natives, though they commenced with higher wages. The head workmen are, however, very well paid. In the foundery of Neville and Co. at Venice, there are French, Swedish, and Swiss workmen, but no English.

There are foreign workmen also employed in the woollen manufactories, in the manufactories of wax and composite candle, straw-hats, furniture, and in the working of precious metals, mining, &c.

In general the foreign workman is considered as more cultivated and more patient than the native, but less sober, less tranquil, and more exigent. The low rates of wages in Venetia, and generally in the other States of Italy, must be attributed to the circumstances that living is cheap and that necessities are few, and that the Italian workman is morigerous, little addicted to drink, very industrious, modest, and fond of domestic life.

I will now say something of the probable condition of workmen for industries which do not exist here, but which might be introduced with utility.

Among the most important must be mentioned the construction of iron and iron-clad ships.

It is well known that this branch of industry is very prosperously carried on by Messrs. Westerman Brothers (an English firm) at Sesto Ponente, and by Messrs. Orlande Brothers at Leghorn, but it has not yet been introduced in Venice.

It is, however, projected to establish a company here with a capital of 3,000,000 francs, for the construction of sailing-ships of iron and of mixed material for the navigation of distant seas.

If this company be established the employment of foreign workmen will not only be opportune but necessary to the undertaking, for although the Venetian workmen build wooden ships extremely well, few can work in iron.

The advantages Venice offers for the construction of ships, either of wood, or iron, or of mixed material, have been shown in every point of view by Professors Alberto Dr. Errera and Zanon, in a work presented to the Royal Institution of Arts and Sciences, of which a copy has been sent to me. It is the only work recently published in Italy on this subject, and gives a perfect and exact idea of naval construction in every part of Italy, showing that for the purchase of the first material, for wages, and for ships, Venice possesses greater advantages for ship-building than any other part of Italy.

In the accompanying Tables marked I to III, drawn out in the form prescribed by the Earl of Clarendon's instructions, will be found condensed the information contained in the foregoing Report. They show likewise the rates of wages paid to the several classes of workmen; the purchase-power of money here compared with England; the prices of the principal articles of food; and give the information desired on matters regarding health (as diet, clothing, and dwellings), and the qualities of work in which foreign workmen might be employed.

(Signed) WILLIAM PERRY.

Venice, December, 1870.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

LABOUR.

	Currency.				Purchase Power.
	Local.		British.		
1. Woollen Manufactures and Spinneries—	Italian Livres.		*s. d.*	*s. d.*	In the Provinces, 9*l.* sterling, and in Venice, 10*l.* sterling, would approximately be equal to 12*l.* sterling in England.
Women and children per diem	0 70 to	1 25	0 7 to	1 0½	
Spinners, able .. ,,	3 50	5 0	2 11	4 2	
,, less able . ,,	2 0	3 30	1 8	2 9	
Weavers, able .. ,,	3 0	4 25	2 6	3 6½	
,, less able .. ,,	2 25	3 0	1 10½	2 6	
Other workmen .. ,,	1 20	2 25	1 0	1 10½	
2. Cotton Manufactures—					
Men .. .. ,,	1 0	1 60	0 10	1 4	
Women .. .. ,,	0 90	1 0	0 9	0 10	
Children.. .. ,,	0 35	0 50	0 3½	0 5	
3. Ship Building (Sailing Ships)—					
Carpenters .. per diem	4 0		3 4		
Caulkers.. .. ,,	4 0		3 4		
Sawyers.. .. ,,	4 0		3 4		
Other workmen .. ,,	1 0	3 0	0 10	2 6	
4. Iron Works—					
Founders .. ,,	3 0	7 0	2 6	5 10	
Smiths .. .. ,,	3 0	6 0	2 6	5 0	
,, (machinery). ,,	3 0	6 0	2 6	5 0	
Carpenter-modelists ,,	3 0	5 0	2 6	4 2	
Labourers .. ,,	2 0	3 50	1 8	2 11	
Boys .. .. ,,	1 0	2 0	0 10	1 8	

PROVISIONS.

	Currency.					
	Local.			British.		
	Italian Livres.				*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Bread	per kilo.	0 48		per lb. English	0 2¼	
Beef and mutton ..	,,	1 30 to	1 35	,,	0 6 to	0 6⅝
Milk..	per litre		0 35	per quart		0 2½
Beer	,,	0 30	0 50	,,	0 3	0 5
Wine	,,	0 50	0 80	,,	0 5	0 8
Rice..	per kilo.	0 40	0 50	per lb. English	0 1⅛	0 2¼
Butter	,,	3 12		,,	1 2	
Coffee	,,	1 67	2 0	,,	0 7½	0 9
Sugar (crushed) ..	,,	1 0	1 10	,,	0 4½	0 5
Potatoes	,,	0 10	0 12	,,	0 0½	0 0⅝
Cheese	,,	1 30	3 0	,,	0 5⅞	1 2

II.—*Matters relating to Health.*

Diet.—The English workman arriving in this country should, as far as possible, adhere to the same system of diet to which he has been accustomed in his native country, avoiding the frequent use of spirituous liquors, which in this climate is prejudicial to health. Beef, mutton, poultry, fish, rice, vegetables, and bread are the

best description of food; and the best drinks are the wines of the country and beer, which is of a lighter description than the porter and ale used in England, but restorative. Polenta, a sort of pudding or cake, made of Indian corn-flour mixed with water, and which is the principal and almost exclusive article of subsistence of the peasantry and labouring classes in this country, is a nutritive and wholesome food, and may be used with economy by the English workman and his family as a substitute for bread. It is eaten by the natives with a small quantity of fried fish, or with cheese or other accompaniment, if obtainable.

A Venetian workman would spend for living as follows: for breakfast 20 centimes, for dinner 70 to 80 centimes, and for supper 20 to 25 centimes, making altogether 1 franc and 25 centimes, or 1*s.* ½*d.* per day at the highest estimate; but at the economical kitchens which were established for the poor at the period of the last cholera, he may obtain breakfast, consisting of a dish of broth and beans, or rice with vegetables (10 centimes) and bread (10 centimes) for 20 centimes; dinner, consisting of a potage, as above, with bread (20 centimes) and meat (20 centimes) for 40 centimes; and supper with meat and bread for 20 centimes, making in all 85 centimes, or 8½*d.* per day. A workman with a wife and two children (from 10 to 20 years of age) spends on an average 1 franc and 50 centimes per day; but this diet and mode of living might possibly not be congenial to English workmen.

Clothing.—This necessary article is not expensive in this country, perhaps less so than in England, particularly for ordinary clothing, and there are numerous shops of ready-made clothes and linens where the workman may purchase what he may require at moderate prices according to his means.

An Italian workman would clothe himself for 49 francs a year in the following manner: for boots, 14 francs; jacket, waistcoat, and trousers, 15 francs; a cap, 3 francs; a hat, 5 francs; linen (4 shirts and 4 pairs of stockings), 12 francs: equal to 1*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.* per annum.

Lodging.—In Venice good dwellings for workmen are scarce, but a company has been formed, which is now in operation, for the purpose of building houses for the working classes, which will greatly ameliorate their

condition. At present the greater part of the workmen are badly lodged, and inhabit houses on the ground floor which are damp and insalubrious. A dwelling for a family composed of three or four persons,—a bed-room, a kitchen, and another small place, costs half a franc 5*d.*) per day. For a ground floor or attic room a workman pays 15 or 20 centimes (1½*d.* or 2*d.*) per day.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The descriptions of labour are as follows:—
Wool and cotton-spinners and manufactories.
Ship-building.
Iron works.
Glass works.
Wax and composite candle manufactories.

It will be seen by the accompanying Report that at present there is no inducement for English artizans to emigrate to Venice, as the native workmen, whose economical manner of living enables them to work for lower wages than foreigners, are found sufficient for the works which are now in operation, and that in the event of the projected company for constructing iron and iron-clad ships being carried into effect, it is only workmen of the superior order who would be wanted.

(Signed) WILLIAM PERRY.

Venice, December, 1870.

Consul-General Perry to Earl Granville.—(Received December 9.)

My Lord, *Venice, December* 5, 1870.

SINCE I had the honour of transmitting to your Lordship on the 3rd instant my Report on the condition of artizans and labouring classes in this Consular district, I have received from the Company established here for the purpose of building convenient dwellings for workmen a list of the rents fixed for thirty-two apartments contained in the first house built by them; and, as this document will show clearly how much the condition of the labouring classes will be improved as the Company

progress in their operations, I deem it right to inclose it to you Lordship in continuation of my Report.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WILLIAM PERRY.

Inclosure.

STATEMENT of Rents fixed for Thirty-two Apartments contained in the first House erected by the Company for building Workmens' Dwellings at Santa Ternitá, Venice.

No.		Per Month.	
		I. Livre.	s. d.
	First Staircase.		
	Ground Floor—		
1	For 2 rooms and kitchen	12 0	10 0
2	Ditto.		
	First Floor—		
3	For 3 rooms and kitchen	18 50	15 5
4	Ditto	18 50	15 5
	Second Floor—		
5	For 3 rooms and kitchen	18 50	15 5
6	Ditto	18 50	
	Third Floor—		
7	For 3 rooms and kitchen	16 0	13 4
8	Ditto	16 0	13 4
	Second Staircase.		
	Ground Floor—		
9	For 2 rooms and kitchen	Housekeeper.	
10	For 1 room, small passage, and kitchen..	8 0	6 8
	First Floor—		
11	For 1 room and kitchen	11 0	9 2
12	For 2 rooms and kitchen	14 0	11 8
	Second Floor—		
13	For 1 room, small passage, and kitchen ..	11 0	9 2
14	For 2 rooms, small passage, and kitchen .	14 0	11 8
	Third Floor—		
15	For 1 room and kitchen	9 50	7 11
16	Ditto	12 0	10 0
	Third Staircase.		
	Ground Floor—		
17	For 2 rooms, closet, and kitchen ..	11 50	9 7
24	For 1 room, closet and kitchen ..	8 0	6 8
	First Floor*—		
18	For 3 rooms and kitchen	16 0	13 4
19	For 2 rooms and kitchen	14 0	11 8

* Laundry with 2 copper boilers and fireplace for common use.

No.		Per Month.	
		I. Livres.	s. d.
	Second Floor—		
20	For 3 rooms and kitchen	16 0	13 4
21	For 2 rooms and kitchen	14 0	11 8
	Third Floor—		
22	For 3 rooms and kitchen	14 0	11 8
23	For 2 rooms and kitchen	12 0	10 0
	Fourth Staircase.		
	Ground Floor—		
25	For 2 rooms and kitchen	11 50	9 7
26	For 2 rooms, closet, and kitchen ..	8 50	7 1
	First Floor—		
27	For 1 room, small passage, and kitchen..	11 50	9 7
28	Ditto	11 0	9 2
	Second Floor—		
29	For 1 room, small passage, and kitchen..	11 50	9 7
30	Ditto	11 0	9 2
	Third Floor—		
31	For 1 room, small passage, and kitchen..	9 50	7 11
32	Ditto	9 0	7 6

(Signed) WILLIAM PERRY.

Venice, December, 1870.

MOROCCO.

Consul White to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received March 28.)

My Lord, *Tangier, March* 17, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a Report upon the position of the artizan and industrial classes in Morocco, prepared by Mr. Drummond-Hay, the Confidential Clerk of this Legation, in conformity with the instructions contained in your Lordship's despatches of the 30th April and 31st December last.

I regret that I have been unable to forward this Report to your Lordship at an earlier date, but in a country like Morocco, where there are no printed statistical documents and no means exist for obtaining information from official sources, some time is required in order to collect accurate and trustworthy data for a Report of this nature.

I entirely coincide with the remarks made by Mr. Drummond-Hay at the close of his Report that, in its present condition, Morocco presents no opening whatever to foreign industry.

I have, &c.

(Signed) HORACE P. WHITE.

Inclosure.

Report by Mr. R. Drummond-Hay upon the Artizan and Industrial Classes in Morocco.

IN furnishing an accurate Report upon the condition of the artizan and industrial classes in Morocco and the proportion which they bear to the rest of the population, unusual difficulties arise.

In the first place, Morocco, unlike most other countries, possesses no statistics, printed documents, or manuscripts, either official or private, which might be referred to with the view to obtain accurate information; and, secondly, there exists a great prejudice amongst all

classes against a census being taken which might enable those in power to gain too great a knowledge of the means of each family and of the numbers of which it is composed. I have, therefore, been compelled to seek for information, on the one hand, from those natives of the country who are best informed on these subjects; and, on the other, from Europeans of long residence in Morocco.

It is true that there are works on Western Barbary written by Europeans, from which it might be supposed that a certain amount of knowledge is to be gained; but as they are chiefly of old date, many of the statements contained in them would not be applicable to the state of the country in the present day.

The population has been gradually decreasing for many years, and since the new Conventions of Commerce concluded with Great Britain and other Powers, trade and industry have undergone a considerable change. Having collected the opinions of those who have travelled and resided in the country, I find that their estimates of the population of Morocco vary to the great extent of from 4,000,000 to 15,000,000.

This striking inconsistency in their statements is caused by the impossibility of forming any idea of the number of people inhabiting the vast plains of the interior, the numerous ranges of the Atlas and other mountains, and the towns lying in wild and ungoverned provinces, rarely, if ever, traversed by Europeans.

Under these circumstances it is most difficult to furnish a statement of the relative proportions of the industrial and other classes in Morocco.

I have, however, succeeded in gaining a certain amount of information concerning the towns of Morocco, Fez, Mequinez, Tetuan, and the ports situated on the western coast, in which, I have no hesitation in saying, are comprised almost all the artizan and industrial classes of Morocco. The inhabitants of the remaining large tracts of country seem to rely upon pedlars, if far from a town, to supply them with all they require for their households excepting some articles of dress which are woven by the women in and for their own homes, and whose work cannot be reckoned as a separate branch of industry.

I conclude, therefore, that the afore-mentioned

towns will provide sufficient grounds to extract the greater part of the knowledge this Report is intended to supply.

The aggregate number of inhabitants in the towns of Fez, Morocco, Mequinez, Rabat, Tetuan, Tangier, Laraiche, Dar-el-baida, Mogador, and Saffee amount, in round numbers, to 240,000 souls, and their artizan and industrial classes to about 14,000, or an average of 6 per cent.; and I find, also that a similar proportion is arrived at in taking the relative proportions of the classes in each town separately. The town of Tarodant and those in the provinces of Tafilelt I have not taken into account, as they are situate at such a distance in the interior that little trustworthy information can be obtained as to the people who inhabit them, though I believe their industries are proportionately small in number when compared with other towns in Morocco; but as I have reason to believe that those districts do not employ above 2,000 hands, I shall not be far wrong in stating that the artizans and industrial classes number about 16,000 souls, which, if the population of Morocco is placed at 8,000,000, gives a proportion of 1 in 500.

The national industries may be classed as follows:—

Tanning and shoe making, weaving and carpet making, mat making, tailoring and embroidering. Manufactures of saddles, stirrups and spurs, brass trays and kettles, &c., cord and string, baskets, sieves, pack-saddles, bricks and tiles, fez caps and glass. Masons and carpenters, gold and silversmiths, gunsmiths, blacksmiths, tinsmiths, farriers, flour and coffee mills, decorators.

The nature of the engagements and the rates of the wages received by those employed in the above industries vary very much in certain cases, as may be seen by the following instances:—

Tanners and Shoemakers.—The tanneries of Morocco and Rabat excel all others in their dyes. Shoemaking and tanning are not, as might be supposed, two separate trades, but the latter is entirely a monopoly of the shoemakers, who tan and prepare the leather for their own use. A pair of slippers costs from 3*s.* to 4*s.* The workmen, who vary in number from five to fifteen, are paid for their work according to the quality of the slippers, and receive from 2*d.* to 8*d.* per pair. At the chief feasts,

of which there are about four, each man receives from his employer a pair of slippers.

Weaving in Silk and Carpet-Making.—These manufactures are confined mostly to women, who work in their private houses, and besides retaining what they require for their own use are enabled to equal the profits of other industries by the sale of their handiwork. Occasionally, they employ workwomen under them who are paid about 4*d.* by day, or receive a per-centage on the proceeds. The price of the fine carpets manufactured at Rabat is 8*s.* per yard; they vary in length from 7 to 18 feet, being never wider than 7 feet.

Weaving in Wool.—The finest woollen materials are also woven by women, but the ordinary "haik" and "djellabea" are woven by men. This trade flourishes most at Fez, where some manufactories employ as many as twenty hands, paid at the rates of 4*d.*, 5*d.*, and 6*d.* daily, or 10*s.*, 12*s.*, and 16*s.* if engaged by the month.

Potteries.—The Fez and Tetuan potteries are considered to be the best, and a good profit is derived from them. The number of hands employed never exceeds ten, but in wet weather the trade flags and then very few workmen are engaged. Their pay is according to agreement; they receive either a per-centage on the profits or from 4*d.* to 5*d.* per day.

Mat-making.—In Tetuan and Rabat are the chief manufactories of mats, each employing 3 or 4 hands, who are paid for the work at the rate of a ¼*d.* per yard about 12 or 16 yards being a day's work. They are also in may instances engaged by the day at 4*d.*, 5*d.*, or 6*d.*, or by the month at 10*s.*, 12*s.*, or 16*s.*

Tailors and Embroiderers.—Tailors both sew and embroider; each master employs three or four hands, who receive from 1*d.* to 4*d.* per garment. All underclothing in cotton and calico is sewn by women who work at the same rate. Those who are employed for embroidering in gold on velvet, and in silk on muslin and cotton, are engaged by the month and day at the same rate as the mat makers.

Masons and Carpenters.—Of these classes there exists a large proportion in every town, there engagements are by the day, when they earn from 1*s.* to 4*s.*, and their workmen are usually engaged by the month at the rates of wages already stated in the above trades.

The nature of the engagements of the artizans employed in the remaining industries, does not differ for various employments being all paid, either 10*s*., 12*s*., or 16*s*. per month, or 4*d*., 5*d*., and 6*d*. per day.

At Fez, Morocco, and other towns, which are not in direct communication with Europe, the rates of wages are lower than at the ports and do not exceed, per day, 4*d*., or, per month, 12*s*.; and in some instances a penny loaf is provided daily in addition to the wages.

Thus it will be seen that the wages of an artizan do not exceed 6*d*. per day or 16*s*. per month, and that there are a few amongst them who are engaged, either by the work, or by a per-centage on the proceeds of the sale. In summer, labour commences at 6 A.M. and continues until 4 P.M.; in winter, it begins and terminates an hour earlier, one hour's rest being allowed at mid-day.

The houses or lodgings usually occupied by these classes are not situated in a separate quarter of the town, but the dwellings both of rich and poor often adjoin one another, and it is only the Jews' quarter or "millah" which forms a division apart from the rest of the town. With the exception of houses belonging to the wealthier inhabitants, which are invariably raised a story above the ground floor, those of all classes are very similar in their construction, consisting, as a rule, of a courtyard inclosed by three or four long narrow rooms. The wealth or poverty of the occupant is indicated by the quality of the tiles or bricks paving the courtyard or "patio" and forming also the flooring of the rooms, and by the walls, doors, and woodwork, which in rich peoples' houses are respectively stuccoed, carved, and painted: whereas the houses of artizans are most simple, the walls without and within are whitewashed, the doors made of the commonest wood, generally not painted, the yard and rooms paved with ordinary red bricks, the latter being only furnished with a mat and a strip of carpet, or mattress to sleep on. The few remaining necessaries of the household can be comprised in a short inventory, namely: a large chest, a small low table, a tub for washing linen, a kettle, and a couple of saucepans, two tea-cups, and some baskets.

Moorish families live each in a separate house, their law obliging them to keep women secluded, but amongst the Jews several families often occupy one house.

The rent paid by the family of an artizan occupying

the description of house I have mentioned, varies according to the size and state of repair, from 4*s*. to 8*s*. per month. There are also a few who live in houses which they have inherited or have built for themselves. Lodgings are also let at a low rate, the rent of a room for an unmarried artizan amounting to from 1*s*. to 2*s*. a month.

The living of these classes is most simple, consisting daily of two penny loaves of bread, and a small bowl of a kind of gruel made from "el drah," or millet. Those who are in better circumstances provide themselves, every market day, which happens twice a week, with either half a pound or less of meat, or some fish cooked in oil. "Cuscosoo," the favourite and national dish, is made from the finest part of the wheat, barley, or millet, and requires a large quantity of butter or milk, which renders it a more expensive dish and therefore cannot form a part of their daily food.

I may state, in conclusion, that the labour markets of Morocco in their present condition present no openings whatever, to the industrial classes of other countries. The wages, living, houses, and want of capital to employ labour being alone sufficient to exclude foreign enterprise and industry.

(Signed) ROB. DRUMMOND-HAY.

Tangier, March 15, 1870.

Sir J. Drummond Hay to Earl Granville.—(Received November 21.)

My Lord, *Tangier, November* 7, 1870.

In pursuance of the instructions contained in your Lordship's Circular despatch of the 7th June last, I have the honour to transmit herewith a summary, which has been prepared by my Private Secretary, Mr. R. Drummond Hay, of the substance of his Report on the condition of the industrial classes in Morocco, which was transmitted to your Lordship's Department on the 17th of March of this year.

With regard to any further information required on the subject I beg to refer to the above-mentioned Report of Mr. R. D. Hay.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. H. DRUMMOND HAY.

Inclosure.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
Labour	3 okeats to 5 okeats	4*d.* to 6*d.*	A native can live when provisions are at these prices, for 2*d.* to 4*d.* a day. An Englishman could not live on the low diet of a native, and his expenses would therefore be greater; but he would receive higher wages than a native artizan.
Provisions—			
Meat	3 okeats to 4 okeats the Moorish lb.	2¾*d.* to 3¾*d.* per British lb.	
Bread	1 to 4 blankees a loaf.	¼*d.* to 1½*d.* a loaf.	
Fruit and vegetables ...	No fixed prices ...	¼*d.* will buy more than enough for one man's consumption.	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—An Englishman could eat the same food in Morocco as he does in England, though more fruit and vegetables would be generally beneficial for health. Spirits if not used with great moderation are pernicious. The native Mohammedans use neither spirits nor wine. The light wines of Spain and France are healthy beverages in Morocco. Beer is expensive and not adapted to the climate.

Clothing.—The same clothing can be used in summer as is done in England. In winter, clothing should be rather lighter. Natives use much woollen clothing. Flannel next the skin would be advisable for Englishmen of the working classes in Morocco.

Lodgings.—In the towns the poorer classes of natives are lodged in houses on the ground floor.

The drainage and ventilation are not good as contrasted with dwellings in Europe. In the country the population live in huts or tents.

III.—*Quality of Work*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—The artizans in Morocco, considering the hot climate, do their work well, but as regards skill and finish are very inferior to those of Europe.

They are perhaps actuated, in the pains they may take to execute their work, more from a feeling of pride than from any strict sense of honour.

(Signed) ROB. DRUMMOND HAY.

Tangier, November 7, 1870.

NAVIGATORS' ISLANDS.

Consul Williams to Earl Granville.—(*Received March* 24, 1870.)

Apia Upolu, Samoa,
November 14, 1870.

My Lord,

On the 9th instant I received the Circular of the 7th June inclosing copies of Circular despatches addressed by the late Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs to Her Majesty's Diplomatic Representatives abroad for Reports on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries.

I now have the honour to forward a Report for the Navigator Islands, which cannot possibly be in time for the 1st of December, having only received the Circular a few days ago.

I have, &c.
(Signed) JOHN C. WILLIAMS.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Williams on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Samoa.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.				Purchase Power.					
	Local.		British.							
	$ c.	$ c.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.	
Labour .. .. per month	50 0	to 66 0	10 0 0	to 12 0 0	6 0 0	to	8 0 0	
Provisions—								
Jams ... ... per 100 lbs.	2 0	3 0	0 8 0	0 12 0	0 6 0		0 8 0	
Talo (Arum) ... ... „ 40 „	...	1 0	...	0 4 0	0 1 6		0 2 0	
Bread fruit ... ... „ 60 „	...	1 0	...	0 4 0	0 1 6		0 2 0	
Sweet potatoes ... per barrel	2 0	3 0	0 8 0	0 12 0	0 6 0		0 8 0	
Bananas ... ... per bunch	...	0 25	...	0 1 0	0 0 4		0 0 6	
Pumpkins ... ... per 100	10 0	12 0	2 0 0	2 8 0	1 5 0		1 10 0	
Oranges ... ... „	...	1 0	...	0 4 0	0 1 6		0 2 0	
Limes ... ... per barrel	1 0	2 0	0 4 0	0 8 0	0 1 6		0 4 0	
Salt beef ... ... „	18 0	20 0	3 12 0	4 0 0	3 12 0		4 0 0	
„ pork ... ... „	...	25 0	...	5 0 0	...		5 0 0	
Fresh beef ... ... per lb.	0 15	0 25	0 0 7½	0 1 0	0 0 7½		0 1 0	
„ pork (standing) „	0 5	0 8	0 0 2½	0 0 4	0 0 2½		0 0 4	
„ „ (dressed)... „	...	0 10	...	0 0 5	...		0 0 5	
Fowls ... ... each	...	0 25	...	0 1 0	0 0 6		0 0 9	
Ducks (Muscovy)	...	0 50	...	0 2 0	...		0 2 0	
Wood pigeons . ... per doz.	...	1 0	...	0 4 0	0 2 0		0 3 0	
Bread ... ... 3 lb. loaf	...	0 25	...	0 1 0	...		0 1 0	
Flour ... ... per 100 lbs.	5 0	8 0	1 0 0	1 12 0	1 0 0		1 12 0	
Biscuits ... ... „	6 0	8 0	1 4 0	1 12 0	1 4 0		1 12 0	
Tea ... ... per lb.	...	0 75	...	0 3 0	...		0 3 0	
Sugar (brown) . ... „	0 12½	0 15	0 0 6	0 0 7½	0 0 6		0 0 7½	
„ (white)... ... „	0 20	0 25	0 0 10	0 1 0	0 0 10		0 1 0	
Coffee (raw) ... ... „	...	0 25	...	0 1 0	...		0 1 0	
Rice ... ... „	...	0 10	...	0 0 5	...		0 0 5	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—If the intending emigrant be a temperate man, the productions of the islands are in no way hurtful, but it requires some little time to get accustomed to them. A working-man may put by from 25 to 50 per cent. of his wages, if he be a steady and sober man, although clothing and foreign provisions are dear; but the island productions are moderate if exchanged for trade purchased at first cost, such as calicoes, prints, shirts, trousers, powder, shot, fowling-pieces, &c.

Drinks.—Porter is too heavy a drink. Light beer is more suitable. All spirits are injurious.

The water in the cocoa-nut, before being too old, is both sweet and refreshing, and is much drank: this and fresh water is the beverage of the country. There is a climbing plant in the woods and forests which furnishes good water to the thirsty traveller when neither fresh water or cocoa-nut can be obtained. The water is procured by cutting the plant in two, then severing a piece of about two to three feet from the upper end, when out pours clear water enough to fill a tumbler.

The root of the kava (*macropiper methysticum*) is prepared for drink, and, taken in moderation, is a narcotic; but is considered by the natives a purifier of the blood if taken in moderation.

Clothing.—Light clothing is used all the year round, such as duck and drill trousers, twill shirts, light coats, and flannels.

Any man can work from eight to ten hours per day, if he does not expose himself to the intense heat of the sun. The thermometer ranges from 82° to 84° in the shade all the year round.

Lodging.—A person can obtain provisions and houses anywhere he has a mind to take up his quarters, for the natives are hospitable but very avaricious. Their houses are too open for foreigners, but suitable to the Islanders.

No drains are required, nor is there any dirt or obnoxious smells about their dwellings.

The climate is healthy. The elephantiasis is common, and a variety of skin diseases, the latter being, most of them, infectious. No malignant fevers, small-pox, or measles.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

There are many good and competent workmen in Samoa, but most of them are drunkards, and take but little or no pride in doing their work well, and most of them would take good wages for bad work without hesitation.

There is work for a few good, steady, sober, industrious house and ship carpenters, blacksmiths, and two or three shoemakers.

Brief Summary of Remarks.

Land, in small portions from five to ten acres, is procurable at a moderate rate, from 12 to 20 dollars per acre, uncleared. This might be cultivated as produce-farms, and the productions would meet with a ready sale. No one has yet carried this on.

Hitherto the mechanics arriving in Samoa and settling here have given up their trades and turned their attention to the purchasing of island produce, such as cocoa-nut oil, cotton, dried cocoa-nuts and fibre, for this is easier and more lucrative than following their trades. They first obtain articles of English and foreign manufacture, on credit, from the merchants, which they exchange with the natives for their produce.

There are no manufactories in these islands; but the labourer's hours are from 6 in the morning to 6 in the evening.

(Signed) JOHN C. WILLIAMS.

Apia Upolu, Samoa, November 14, 1870.

NETHERLANDS.

Vice-Admiral Harris to Earl Granville.—(Received December 26.)

My Lord, *The Hague, December 23, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith to your Lordship, in compliance with Lord Clarendon's Circular instructions of the 7th June, a further Report by Mr. Locock on the industrial classes of the Netherlands.

I have, &c.

(Signed) E. A. J. HARRIS.

Inclosure.

Further Report by Mr. Locock on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Netherlands.

CONSIDERING the information contained in my Report on this subject of last December, and the decided opinion which, at the close of that Report, I ventured to express on the question whether, and with what amount of hope the British artizan could look to this country for a field of labour, it would probably be deemed superfluous were I now to enter afresh at any great length into the questions which form the subject of the late Lord Clarendon's despatch of the 7th of June.

Moreover, inasmuch as in the compilation of that Report I endeavoured to bear in mind that what I was writing would probably be read by working men, I purposely avoided entering into anything like dry and minute statistics; with the figures before me I abstained from quoting them, preferring to deduce from them results which might be more easily grasped, and more certainly retained. The pages which are occupied by the Netherlands Report in the volume on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries are but a few in number, and do not contain a single column of figures. The present, which is intended but as a supplement, must, at least, be of proportionate dimensions.

The points on which I am directed to give further information are three in number :—

1. The purchase-power of money in foreign countries as compared with England.

2. Matters connected with the preservation of health.

3. The quality of work executed in the several departments of labour.

I will take these three subjects in order, giving to each of them that development which I perceive is desired.

I.—*The Purchase Power of Money in Foreign Countries as compared with England.*

I have here to confess that, after several trials, I have failed to arrive, to my own satisfaction, on any figure or figures which, in accordance with my instructions, I can enter in the third column as representing the purchasing power of English money in Holland. The general value of money is not, indeed, very different in the two countries. But the question whether the artizan would find 20*s*. go as far in Holland as 25*s*., 20*s*., or only 15*s*., would, it appears to me, very much depend on the nature of his purchases, and on whether he was content to live in Holland as a Hollander, or whether he thought it necessary to live as an Englishman. I can quite imagine two English artizans settling down in Holland with their families, of identical circumstances, but of opposite characters, and arriving, at the end of six months, at very opposite conclusions as to the purchasing value of money. I can quite picture to myself the one contentedly remarking on the low prices of meat, milk, bread, vegetables, and house-rent, and the other grumbling at not being able to get his this and his that, except by paying for it half as much again as the thing was worth, and bemoaning his lot at having to live in a country where the working man cannot even afford to have his drop of beer, or to put a lump of sugar in his tea.

In face, then, of the difficulty which I find in accurately and satisfactorily giving the exact purchasing power of money in Holland as compared with England, I propose to furnish two or three separate Tables

showing the rates of wages and the price of provisions. Any intending emigrant can thus see at a glance what amount of wages he would be likely to earn were he to come to this country, and then, without much difficulty, judge from the list of retail prices how far these wages would go, and thus be enabled possibly at once to decide the question whether it will be wiser for him to come or stay away.

TABLE showing the Hours of Labour and the Rate of Wages of some of the principal Factories, &c., of Arnheim.

Factory, &c.	Hours of Labour.	How Paid.	Amount of Wages.	
			In Dutch Currency.	Equivalent in English Money.
Iron foundry	10 to 12	By the hour	From 8 to 23 cents	1½*d.* to 4½*d.*, or from 8*s.* per week.
Bread manufactory ..	12	„ week	7·50, 8, 10, 12 florins	12*s.* 6*d.* to 1*l.*.
Gas works .. .	12	„ day	0·90, 1, 1·20, 1·30 florins ..	1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 2*d.*,or from 9*s.* per week.
Zinc foundry	11	„ hour	From 9 to 20 cents	1¾*d.* to 4*d.*, or from 10*s.* per week.
Brewery	to 14	„ week	6, 7, 9, 10, and 12 florins, with beer	10*s.* to 1*l.*, with beer.
Frame manufactory ..	10	„ hour	From 10 to 12 cents	2*d.* to 2½*d.*, or from 10*s.* per week.
Tape manufactory ..	11	„ week	Foreman, 17 florins 50 cents; workmen, 7 or 8 florins; boys and girls, 2 to 2½ florins	3*s.* 4*d.* to 1*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*
Hardware factory ..	11	„ hour	From 7 to 12 cents	1½*d.* to 2½*d.*, or from 7*s.* 8*d.* per week.
Coachmaker	12	„ hour	Earn from 2·10 to 0·80 florins a-day	From 3*s.* 6*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* a-day.
Printing press	11	„ week	From 4 to 20 florins	6*s.* 8*d.* to 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*
Steam sawmill . ..	12	„ hour	From 7 to 18 cents	1½*d.* to 3½*d.*, or from 8*s.* 6*d.* per week.

Rates of Wages in Deventer.

Trades or Occupations.	Number of Hours per Day.	Weekly Wages.	
		Dutch Currency.	Sterling.
		Fl. c.	s. d.
Bakers	varies	4 80	8 0
Upholsterers	10	5 40	9 0
Printers	11	5 40	9 0
Brushmakers	12	4 20	7 0
Gold and silversmiths	11	6 0	10 0
Millers	10	4 80	8 0
Tailors	11	4 80	8 0
Workers in copper and tin ..	11	5 10	8 6
Coopers	12	4 80	8 0
Type-setters	12	6 0	10 0
Plumbers	10	5 40	9 0
Basketmakers	11	4 80	8 0
Masons and bricklayers	10	5 70	9 6
Millwrights	10	5 40	9 0
Bricklayers' labourers	12	4 20	7 0
Shipwrights	10	6 0	10 0
Shoemakers	10	4 80	8 0
Joiners	11	4 80	8 0
Blacksmiths	12	4 80	8 0
Stonecutters	10	6 60	11 0
Chairmakers	10	4 20	7 0
Plasterers	12	6 60	11 0
Carpetmakers	11	6 60	11 0
Woolspinners	10	5 10	8 6
Hand-wheel spinners	12	2 40	4 0
Carpenters	10	5 40	9 0
Tinmen	10	4 80	8 0
Ropemakers	11	4 80	8 0
Painters and glaziers	10	4 80	8 0
Coachmakers	10	5 40	9 0
Ironfounders—			
Moulders	10	6 60	11 0
Smiths	10	6 60	11 0
Model-makers	10	6 0	10 0
Soapmakers	11	5 10	8 6

PRICES of Provisions at Deventer.

Articles.	Dutch Prices and Measures.	English Equivalents.
	Fl. c.	*d.*
Potatoes	2 0 per mud	14½ per bushel.
Rye bread	0 9½	nearly 1 per lb.
	to 0 10 per kilo.	
Butter	1 10	10*d.* to 12 „
	to 1 30 „	
Suet	0 80 „	7¼ „
Bacon	0 90 „	8¼ „
Milk	0 16 per litre	nearly 2 per pint.
Buttermilk	0 4 „	½ „
Beef	0 75 per kilo.	nearly 7 per lb.
Veal	0 75 „	„ 7 „
Pork	0 75 „	„ 7 „
Mutton	0 45	4*d.* to 4½ „
	to 0 50 „	

PRICES of Provisions at the Hague.

Articles.	Dutch Prices and Measures.	English Equivalents.
	Fl. c.	*d.*
Potatoes	3 50 per mud	25½ per bushel.
White bread ..	0 18	1½*d.* to 2 per lb.
	to 0 22 per kilo.	
Butter	1 60 „	15 „
Suet	1 20 „	11 „
Bacon	1 10 „	10 „
Milk	0 7 per litre	¾ per pint.
Beef	0 80	7¼*d.* to 8¼ per lb.
	to 0 90 per kilo.	
Veal	1 10 „	10 „
Mutton	0 80 „	7¼ „
Flour	0 18 per kop	82 per gallon
White sugar ..	0 80 per kilo	7¼ per lb.
Coffee	1 0 „	9 „
Tea	2 50 „	23 „
Rice	0 30 „	2¾ „
Salt	0 15 „	1¼ „
Soap	0 40 „	3½ „
Beer, mild	0 20 per litre	4½ per quart.

It may be observed that the prices at the capital range higher than those at Arnheim, the rate of wages also ranging higher in about the same proportion.

It would be easy for me to multiply data on this point; my table is covered with statistical information

in manuscript, which has kindly been communicated to me for the purpose of this Report: but I think that what I have given will be sufficient to show the relative value of labour and cost of living for an artizan in this country.

Some interesting information bearing on this subject was lately elicited in the following manner:—In the course of last year a plan was set on foot by the Arnheim branch of the "Netherlands Society for the Promotion of Industry" for improving the social condition of the working classes in that town, and effecting more friendly relations between labourer and employer.

One of the means devised for the attainment of this object was the establishment of a query-box, into which any member of the Society was requested to drop a written question on whatever matter concerning which he might desire enlightenment.

At the meeting of the 24th of January of the present year, on opening the box, the following query was found: "Whether, in view of the steadily rising prices of the necessaries of life, it would not be possible for the Society to effect a rise in wages."

The important question thus raised was forthwith taken into consideration by the Managing Committee, who, convinced that the first step was to obtain authentic information on the relation of wages to prices, charged a Special Committee with the duty of procuring it.

The Special Committee was composed of twelve members, of whom four were ordinary workmen paid by the day, four were masters, and four were indirect employers of labour. At the end of three months the Committee, having finished their labours, communicated the result to the Managing Committee in a Report which has since been printed and placed before the public.

The sphere of inquiry being local, the matter contained in the Report is, much of it, of a purely local nature, but there is also much that bears a general character, and is equally applicable to other industrial towns of Holland.

Amongst other interesting details, are some estimates by workmen of Arnheim of what they themselves spend, or rather consider what they ought to spend, for in most cases it was found that the latter estimate was more

readily given than the former. I will give some of those which seem to be most carefully drawn up, and most likely to be reliable.

The first is the estimate of the weekly expenses of a blacksmith, with his family, of a wife and one child.

	Fl.	c.		s.	d.
Rye bread	1	0	=	1	8
Wheaten bread	0	25		0	5
Butter	0	50		0	10
Milk	0	25		0	5
Sugar		—			—
Coffee	0	30		0	6
Tea	0	25		0	5
Flour	0	25		0	5
Potatoes	1	0		1	8
Greens	0	50		0	10
Meal	0	25		0	5
Beef		—			—
Mutton		—			—
Pork		—			—
Bacon		—			—
Lard	0	60		1	0
Salt	0	15		0	3
Vinegar, pepper	0	10		0	2
Oil	0	20		0	4
Turf and wood	0	35		0	7
Coke or coal	0	35		0	7
Soap	0	20		0	4
Starch	0	10		0	2
Washing and mangling ..	0	10		0	2
Thread	0	25		0	5
Water	0	10		0	2
House-rent	1	0		1	8
Sick fund	0	25		0	5
Burial fund	0	7		0	1½
Clothes	1	0		1	8
Spirits or beer		—			—
Tobacco	0	15		0	3
Total	9	52	=	15	10½

The following is an estimate of expenses made by a mason, with a wife and two children. He must be well off, for he indulges in butter, and much bacon, and spends nearly half as much again as the smith.

	Fl.	c.		s.	d.
House-rent	1	20	=	2	0
Potatoes	1	25		2	1
Firing	0	75		1	3
Rye bread	0	70		1	3
Coffee	0	55		0	11
Oil	0	40		0	8
Bacon	2	10		3	6
Butter	1	30		2	2
Suet or lard	0	45		0	9
Milk	0	28		0	5½
Soap	0	20		0	4
Salt	0	15		0	3
Vegetables	0	40		0	8
White bread	0	40		0	8
Tobacco	0	15		0	3
Doctor's fund	0	25		0	5
Sick and burying fund ..	0	21		0	4
Unforeseen expenses	0	30		0	6
Schooling	0	25		0	5
Clothing	1	25		2	1
Total	13	54	=	22	6½

Next, we have a list of what is considered a legitimate expenditure by a bricklayer, with a wife and four children. The family is larger than that of the last man, but the house would seem to be inferior, and the weekly expenses are much smaller.

	Fl.	c.		s.	d.
Rye bread	1	0	=	1	8
Wheaten bread	0	10		0	2
Butter	0	50		0	10
Milk	0	20		0	4
Cheese	0	5		0	1
Sugar	0	10		0	2
Coffee	0	40		0	8
Tea	0	5		0	1
Treacle	0	5		0	1
Flour	0	20		0	4
Potatoes	1	0		1	8
Vegetables	0	20		0	4
Meal	0	35		0	7
Pork	0	45		0	9
Bacon	0	35		0	7
Lard	0	40		0	8
Salt and pepper	0	15		0	3
Oil	0	40		0	8
Turf and wood	0	30		0	6
Coke or coal	0	30		0	6
Soap	0	20		0	4
Starch and washing	0	14		0	$2\frac{3}{4}$
Thread	0	15		0	3
Water	0	14		0	$2\frac{3}{4}$
House-rent	1	0		1	8
Burial fund	0	12		0	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Clothing	1	0		1	8
Spirits or beer	0	15		0	3
Tobacco	0	15		0	3
Miscellaneous	0	15		0	3
Total	9	75		16	3

Lastly, we have the modest estimate of a bricklayer's labourer, who, blessed with a wife and four young children (including twins), reckons his expenditure by the day, subscribes like the others to the doctor and the undertaker, and finishes by spending considerably more than he is supposed to earn.

	Fl.	c.		s.	d.
Bread	0	20	=	0	4
Rice or grits	0	14		0	2¾
Lard	0	10		0	2
Fuel	0	12½		0	2½
Butter	0	8		0	1½
Coffee	0	6		0	1¼
Oil	0	5		0	1
Salt	0	4		0	0¾
Potatoes	0	25		0	5
Milk	0	3		0	0¾
Total per day ..	1	7½		1	9½
Or, per week ..	7	52½		12	6½
House-rent	1	0		1	8
Sick and burial fund	0	20		0	4
Total	8	72½		14	6½

There are two points specially to be observed in these estimates. The one is the inferior style of living which such estimates denote. As a rule, no meat but bacon is ever tasted, and but little of that. With one exception, it is not admitted by any of these men that they should lay out any portion of their wages on spirits or beer, or drink anything stronger than tea and coffee. I imagine that in practice they are not all of them thorough temperance men, still it is remarkable that they do not reckon even beer as a legitimate item of expenditure.

The other point to be remarked is that, notwithstanding the narrow limits within which the household expenses are kept, they in every case considerably exceed the nominal wages of the head of the family. This point was noticed by the Committee, who, after examining and comparing many more of these estimates than I have given above, came to the conclusion that the average bare necessaries of an ordinary workman, with an average family amounted to 9 florins (15*s.*) a-week, while his average wages did not exceed 6 florins 60 cents (11*s.*) if he was a skilled, and 4 florins 80 cents (8*s.*) if he was a perfectly unskilled labourer; that there thus remained a deficit of 2 florins 40 cents (4*s.*) in the one case, and 4 florins 20 cents (7*s.*) in the other, which had to be provided for by the man working out of hours, or by the help of the wife or children.

The picture is not calculated to be a tempting one to

an English artizan; for, be it remembered, they are artizans and not field labourers on whose condition the Committee reported. It is not to be wondered at that the conclusion to which the Committee arrived was, "that the average rate of wages within the district was not in proportion to the cost of the necessaries of life; in other words, that wages were too low."

II.—*Matters connected with the Preservation of Health.*

Having, as I imagine, disposed of the question whether the state of the labour-market in this country is such as to make it worth while for Englishmen to attempt to find employment here, the second subject of inquiry loses much of its practical importance, and need only be touched on lightly. The climate, resembling so nearly as it does that of England, should not be deemed an unhealthy one by an Englishman. It is true that the land lies low—some of it very low—that large tracts of meadows are often under water, and that the lungs occasionally feel as though they would be refreshed and braced by a few puffs of mountain air. As I look out of my window at this moment on what in summer is green fields, I see nothing but a vast expanse of water; for miles around the country is little better than a vast shallow lake. But it is not unhealthy for all that; slightly rheumatic, perhaps, but nothing more. There is very little malaria, and few fevers, chills, sunstrokes, and all the other inconveniences of hot climates. Only ordinary care is requisite to preserve health. As to diet, I know nothing which it is particularly necessary to avoid, either in eating or drinking. Here, as everywhere else, a certain moderation is of course necessary, and spirits must be indulged in with reference to quantity rather than cost. One requires much the same clothing as in England, provided that that includes flannels the whole year round. With regard to lodging, I have already so fully gone into that matter in my previous Report, that I need only here say that there is no difficulty in procuring good and healthy lodgings within a moderate distance of the place of employment. There is but little danger from overcrowding, want of ventilation, or dirt; there is more from defective drainage. Drainage is, in many parts of this country, attended

with many difficulties and much unpleasantness, and often the only thing to be done on getting into a badly-drained house is to get out of it as quickly as possible.

III.—*The Quality of Work executed in the several Departments of Labour.*

This is a subject on which I have found diversity of opinion; but perhaps the more general opinion is that Dutch labourers on the whole, and taking one department of labour with another, do not come up to their fellow-workmen of England, France, and Germany. I do not venture any opinion of my own upon this matter, I merely give that of others. I read in a Report drawn up by a Committee, in great measure composed of working men themselves, "The sad truth with reference to all industries is, that the Dutch artizan stands far behind his fellow-workmen in other countries, especially in France and England." I believe that such a sweeping assertion as the above, if on the whole not unmerited, is less applicable to the ordinary workmen than to the highly skilled, and especially to the factory hands. I know masters who have assured me that, while for a foreman or an engineer they preferred to secure an Englishman, for the mass of their workmen they desired no other than Dutch, who were more regular in their mode of life, and gave less trouble in every way. On the other hand, I have heard complaints that it is difficult to get anything like the same amount of work in a cotton factory from Dutch hands that is obtained from English. A gentleman gave me a remarkable instance of this. Finding that in his mill the shuttle moved only at the rate of 100 times per minute, while he had observed that in English factories the minimum rate was 140, he gave his engineer—an Englishman—six months to effect an improvement, telling him to increase the speed so gradually day by day that it would be impossible for the hands to notice the change. Before very long complaints began to be made of the too great rapidity, the work was defectively performed, and the speed had to be slackened. It must be observed that this happened some years ago; great improvements have since been made in various manufactures, for some of which this country has deservedly earned a reputation.

If once the fact is admitted that the Dutch workman is inferior to the English, either in respect to the quantity or the quality of his work, then it requires no argument to prove that the Englishman in Holland would command a higher scale of wages than his Dutch fellow-labourer. The increase might not, in many cases, be a direct and unconditional one, but it would not be less certain. He would find that he was employed while others were out of work. If he were in a factory, he would find that he was appreciated and valued by his employer, and before long be raised to a higher grade and receive advanced wages. But even in such a case, I do not feel at all sure that he would find his weekly earnings very adequate to supply his weekly wants; for an English artizan is not accustomed to the frugal life of this country, and would find it irksome to adopt it.

Should he, in the first instance, have come out as an engineer or foreman, or in some other similar position of responsibility, the case would be different; he would then doubtless receive tempting wages. But experience has shown that such engagements do not always end to the mutual satisfaction of both parties. I could cite frequent instances in which, notwithstanding exceptional high emolument, the Englishman has got discontented or home-sick, and has preferred to throw up his situation and return to his own country.

But there is another difficulty to which it is necessary to allude, and which, were all others removed, would present a serious obstacle to the success of anything like a flow of labour to these shores. I allude to the unfavourable impression which has been produced in this country by the excess to which the system of strikes has been carried by many classes of workmen in England, and the natural fear lest a system so baneful in its effects, so prejudicial to the true interests of employers and employed, and so destructive to the good-feeling and friendly relations which should exist between them, should ever take root in this country. The Dutch artizan at present may be a poor man, but he is at least not in that chronic state of discontent which displays itself in such disagreeable colours amongst many of the working classes of our own country. The same wise legislation which prohibits hostile combinations of one class against another protects the artizan in all legitimate

reunion and combination. Workmen's clubs and trade unions abound in every town in the country. Every trade has its society, and every tradesman, artizan, and labourer, is a member of one or another. The law allows such societies to discuss with full liberty all questions connected with the relations of master to man, and to use all amicable and legitimate means for effecting a change in those relations. What it prohibits is a hostile demonstration of a whole class against another, or of a whole body of workmen against a common employer. This law is respected by all parties, and meets, I have reason to believe, with general approval.

I have spoken of the Report drawn up by a mixed committee of working men and employers of labour at Arnheim to study the question of the rate of wages in connection with a mechanic's necessary expenses, and I stated the result to which they had arrived. It may not be amiss, in connection with the subject of which I have been speaking, to close these few observations by naming the measures which the Committee recommend for adoption in order to bring the income and the expenditure of the artizan into harmony in the way most accordant with justice and order.

The Committee begin by deprecating the idea of resorting to any but perfectly legitimate measures for the attainment of the object in view. Alluding to the means so readily resorted to in other countries, they write:—

"A strike, even though it be on a grand scale, does not have the effect of making the workman less dependent, for it does not tend to promote a good understanding between masters and men; but, above all, it misses its aim, inasmuch as the master, having capital, can afford to await the end of the strike, or can avoid all delay by finding fresh hands. Then it follows that the workman, annoyed at seeing others stand in the way of the success of his movement, very often resorts to violence against those who have supplanted him, or even to the destruction of his employer's property; *i.e.*, of that capital out of which his own labour has to be paid. At this point he comes into collision with the public authority, which represses every act of violence. If it happens that he has remained a calm spectator, he sees after a time that his strike has been ineffectual, and, forced by need, returns to his work on the same or on

scarcely better terms than before; then is his return all the harder for him, his dependence on his employer's capital is the same, and long does he feel in his household the results of the weeks during which he continued to consume while he ceased to earn."

The Committee then state that they would recommend two methods which, together, would have the effect of bringing the workman's wages into proportion with his expenses; that is to say, they would recommend a direct and an indirect increase of wages.

The direct increase they propose to effect by amicable arrangement with the masters, who should be invited to follow an example recently set by one of their own number, and make a general advance of 1 cent ($\frac{1}{5}d.$) per hour to begin with, issuing a circular or a notification to all their hands to that effect.

The indirect increase they say can be accomplished in two ways: the one by the lowering of prices through the establishment of co-operative stores; and the other by the acquirement of greater dexterity in the performance of work. Dwelling on the second of these two methods, they say:—

"The reason that all wages are not alike is because all labour is not equally productive. The man who works better than his neighbour will be better paid. The reward of labour is in constant proportion to its power. By how much the power is greater, by so much will the productiveness of the labour be greater, and the workman be better paid. Give the workman the opportunity of increasing his knowledge; let the School Board look after the workman of the future; let industrial schools be formed for the purpose of fitting him for his work; and lastly, let the workmen who show the greatest aptitude be enabled to go and see what is done in all countries, and obtain the stimulus of a noble ambition. . . . Above all, let the workmen stimulate one another into taking a pleasure and an interest in their work. Work ennobles, even the work of the hand. . . . The workman must proceed with his own development, and by his example and conduct influence his comrades; but the other classes of society must aid him in procuring means for his intellectual and moral development."

With this piece of advice from a Committee, two-

thirds of whom were genuine working men—carpenters, painters, bricklayers, and smiths—I will close these lines. If the Dutch workman is below his foreign comrades in some respects, the holding of such opinions as these lead one to suspect that he deserves to rank equal with them in others.

(Signed) SIDNEY LOCOCK.

The Hague, December 18, 1870.

NORWAY.

Consul-General Crowe to Earl Granville.—(Received November 14.)

My Lord, *Christiania, November 9, 1870.*

In conformity with the instructions contained in the Foreign Office Circular of the 7th of June last, I now have the honour to transmit herewith to your Lordship my Report on the condition of the industrial classes in Norway.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. R. CROWE.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul-General Crowe on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Norway.

Owing to the physical nature of the country, the extent of sea coast, the relative small proportion of land appropriated to agriculture, the dissimilarity of climate between the sea-board districts and the eastern boundaries, together with the supposed influence of the gulf stream, a variety of pursuits have risen, depending as much on natural causes as on industrial labour, and thereby causing a fluctuation on the earnings which makes it difficult to generalize them.

The direct extent of sea-board includes no less than 13½ degrees of latitude, and about 42 degrees of longitude.

If to this extent be added the length of coast formed by the numerous deep fiords intersecting the country from its eastern boundary to the entrance of the White Sea, it will be more than doubled.

In consequence of these geographical characteristics, an attempt to equalize the condition of the labouring classes would prove extremely difficult, and would necessitate a diffuseness which otherwise would not be requisite.

The country is divided into 20 Administrative Departments ("Amts"), containing 55 shrievalties, 39 towns, and 20 loading places, there being no so-called villages.

The loading places are harbours where ships are permitted to load and discharge; but they do not possess the municipal rights and privileges enjoyed by towns. They are formed, however, by a conglomeration of houses; and afford employment to numerous work-people, and therefore may be styled villages.

The superficial area of Norway is computed at 92,784 geographical miles, consisting in arable land, pasture, forest, mountain and forest, and lakes; and containing, according to the census taken on the 31st December, 1865, the following population:—

Towns	269,042
Rural districts	1,432,714
Total	1,701,756

These, with regard to means of living and employments, may be divided into three distinct classes, viz.:—

The seafaring peasantry, occupying the islands off Nordland and Finmark, and the coast side of the fiords extending, in some instances, as far as 100 miles inland from the ocean, along which small farms may be seen wherever there is sufficient soil to maintain one or two cows and a few sheep or goats, where potatoes may be grown, and, under favourable circumstances, a little corn. Their subsistence, however, depends mainly on the fisheries.

The "Bonde," or real peasant, is generally the owner of the land he farms.

This class may be considered as the kernel of the nation. The property of the "Bonde" is not sufficiently large to exempt him from work, but large enough to afford him and his household establishment ample support.

He farms, in the majority of cases, not so much to raise produce for sale as to grow provisions and everything necessary for spinning wearing-apparel; if situated in the vicinity of a town he finds easy communication and a ready market for any superfluous produce.

This class usually build their own houses, and make their own implements, harness, &c.

The third class comprises the so-called "Field Bonde" (Mountain Peasants). These are small proprietors living on the verge of mountain tracks, or in the upper valleys above the level of the corn-growing districts. They live chiefly by rearing cattle, by felling and floating timber down to the saw-mills, and by sale of game, which, during the winter months, they bring to market in a frozen state.

The employment of the population has been subdivided as follows :—

1. Agriculture, forest labour, fisheries, manufactories, men employed	1,035,207
2. Mining, and works appertaining thereto ..	241,446
3 Commerce, navigation, and land transport .	148,590
4. Labour of diverse kinds	101,848
5. Non-material or professional	50,418
6. Non-productive	124,247
	1,701,756

As shown by the following Tables; with the weekly earnings of the industrial classes :—

(No. 1, Class 1 to 2).—POPULATION according to Position and Employment.

	Heads.				Members of Families.		Servants.	Labourers.	Total.			Total
	Male.		Female.									
	Married.	Unmarried and Widowers.	Married.	Unmarried and Widows.	Male.	Female.			Heads of Families.	Members of Families.	Servants, &c.	
Agricultural proprietors	78,592	11,495	83	5,806	98,840	214,835	82,818	59,744	95,976	313,175	92,557	501,708
Agricultural tenants and farmers	13,530	1,227	17	1,155	178,809	38,309	5,182	8,860	16,929	56,117	14,042	87,088
Agricultural clearers ("Hunsmand")	128	62	...	6	130	276	12	22	196	466	34	636
Stewards, overseers, farm bookkeepers	300	463	...	13	336	673	134	300	776	1,009	434	2,219
Agricultural students	...	185	...	...	...	...	...	...	185	...	...	185
Housemen or cotters	50,826	3,823	136	5,545	55,987	120,102	2,097	4,643	60,330	176,089	6,740	243,159
Sons at home, and male relations of proprietors and tenants	3,270	50,164	...	...	2,417	5,728	27	129	53,434	8,145	156	61,735
Ditto, of housemen or cotters	1,208	14,663	...	...	1,128	2,335	12	11	15,871	3,463	23	19,357
Farm day labourers	4,328	4,266	38	1,597	4,298	8,932	25	158	10,224	13,230	183	23,637
Overseers	134	89	...	...	150	368	30	103	223	518	133	874
Labourers employed on ditto	2,303	2,399	...	12	2,661	5,158	73	158	4,714	7,819	231	12,764
Trading gardeners, nurserymen, and assistants ...	123	104	2	11	135	303	22	51	240	438	73	751
Fishermen, and men employed in *pursuit* of game ...	15,342	11,089	15	55	15,378	32,896	1,262	2,671	26,501	48,269	3,933	78,703
Others engaged in farming	111	257	2	37	105	250	11	32	407	355	43	805
Nomads	282	156	...	48	295	708	52	45	486	1,002	97	1,586
	171,472	100,442	293	14,285	199,164	430,872	41,752	76,927	286,492	630,036	118,679	1,035,207

(No. 2, Class 2 to 4.)—MINING and Works appertaining thereto.

	Heads of Families.				Members of Families.		Servants, &c.		In all.			Total.
	Males.		Females.									
	Married.	Unmarried and Widowers.	Married.	Single and Widows.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Heads.	Members.	Servants.	
Mining and quarrying	1,167	994	...	6	1,246	2,634	28	155	2,167	3,880	183	6,230
Conversion of minerals	811	492	...	10	946	1,912	37	127	1,313	2,858	164	4,335
Conversion of metals and ores	5,664	4,910	4	25	6,739	13,496	183	1,149	10,603	20,235	1,332	32,170
Chemical productions	393	282	1	13	446	898	45	210	689	1,344	255	2,288
Preparation of articles of food	3,110	2,415	19	696	4,009	7,793	471	1,976	6,240	11,802	2,447	20,489
Ditto, of woven stuffs	700	819	106	4,361	1,317	2,323	28	155	5,986	3,640	183	9,809
Ditto, of clothing, sewing, washing, &c.	7,847	10,681	106	5,161	9,370	18,320	106	1,175	23,795	27,690	1,281	52,766
Conversion of animal stuff and products	841	751	...	39	915	1,977	78	375	1,631	2,892	453	4,976
Ditto, of timber and vegetable materials	9,404	8,051	7	87	10,601	21,319	221	1,090	17,549	31,920	1,311	50,780
Builders	5,021	2,921	...	5	5,485	10,974	45	382	7,947	10,459	427	24,833
Maintenance of household furniture	1,097	1,247	...	18	1,266	2,505	15	281	2,362	3,771	296	6,429
Builders of mills, carriages, threshing machines ...	566	667	...	2	656	1,291	22	175	1,235	1,947	197	3,379
Ship-building and sail-makers work	2,996	1,647	1	8	3,446	6,835	40	357	4,652	10,281	397	15,330
Maintaining railways, roads, canals	796	1,005	...	4	848	1,696	23	137	1,805	2,544	160	4,509
Industrial work relating to literature and art	382	536	1	72	447	973	12	232	991	1,420	244	2,665
Industrial pursuits, not sufficiently designated ...	80	49	...	78	84	163	...	14	207	247	14	468
	40,875	37,467	245	10,585	47,821	95,109	1,354	7,990	89,172	142,930	9,344	241,446

(No. 3, Class 5.)—TRADE, Navigation, and Carriers.

	Heads of Families.				Members of Families.		Servants.		In all.			Total.
	Male.		Female.									
	Married.	Unmarried or Widowers.	Married.	Unmarried or Widows.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Heads of Families.	Members of Families.	Servants.	
Traders and shipowners	4,063	1,905	5	452	5,126	10,963	1,987	7,633	6,425	16,089	9,620	32,134
Commercial clerks and servants	804	3,804	2	356	899	1,957	52	842	4,966	2,856	894	8,716
Ditto, labourers	3,586	1,484	1	8	4,198	8,217	10	220	5,079	12,415	230	17,724
Salesmen of spirits and beer	546	278	32	799	823	1,741	81	639	1,655	2,564	720	4,939
Shopmen, ditto	9	6	...	...	14	28	...	4	15	42	4	61
Shipmasters	3,724	1,263	...	...	4,403	9,263	207	2,674	4,987	13,666	2,881	21,534
Mates and sailors	7,894	17,193	...	...	7,909	17,112	32	618	25,087	25,021	650	50,758
Pilots	790	169	...	...	981	2,166	30	221	959	3,147	251	4,357
Officials, postmen, and telegraphists	29	10	...	...	43	85	21	61	39	128	82	249
Carriers and private business men	755	273	...	33	966	1,810	190	336	1,061	2,776	526	4,363
Subordinate assistants	702	433	...	17	846	1,666	38	88	1,152	2,482	121	3,755
	22,902	26,818	40	1,665	26,208	54,978	2,648	13,331	51,425	81,186	15,979	148,590

(No. 4, Class 6.)—LABOURERS of Diverse Kinds.

	Heads of Families.				Members of Families.		Servants.		In all.			Total.
	Males.		Females.									
	Married.	Unmarried and Widowers.	Married.	Single and Widows.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Heads of Families.	Members of Families.	Servants.	
Common labourers	13,301	12,271	649	19,597	17,086	32,387	39	451	45,818	49,473	490	95,781
Labourers and servants without fixed work	383	286	17	267	1,987	2,427	8	46	953	4,414	54	5,421
Other personal servants	96	126	1	52	116	219	1	35	275	335	36	646
	13,780	12,683	667	19,916	19,189	35,033	48	532	47,146	54,222	580	101,848

(No. 5, Class 5.)—ADMINISTRATIVE, Professional, and Non-material.

	Heads of Families.				Members of Families.		Servants.		In all.			Total.
	Male.		Female.									
	Married	Single and Widowers.	Married.	Single and Widows.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Heads of Families.	Members of Families.	Servants.	
Church and clergy	1,133	296	...	3	1,506	3,432	776	2,117	1,432	4,938	2,893	9,263
Education and teaching	1,381	2,068	8	672	1,515	3,294	141	1,124	4,130	4,809	1,265	10,204
Medical	466	382	137	426	676	1,364	53	855	1,411	2,040	1,006	4,457
Judicial and administrative	2,575	1,107	7	89	3,000	6,741	664	2,977	3,728	9,741	3,641	17,110
Defensive	1,142	1,943	...	...	1,322	2,720	129	911	3,085	4,042	1,040	8,167
Other	176	196	5	26	209	440	23	142	403	649	165	1,217
	4,873	5,992	157	1,167	8,228	17,991	1,884	8,126	14,189	26,219	10,010	50,418

(No. 6, Class 6.)—NON-PRODUCTIVE LABOUR.

	Heads of Families.				Members of Families.		Servants.		In all.			Total.
	Males.		Females.									
	Married.	Single and Widowers.	Married.	Single and Widows.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Heads of Families.	Members of Families.	Servants.	
Capitalists	197	317	3	1,315	421	1,120	96	830	1,832	1,541	926	4,299
Paupers (not inhabiting workhouses)	15,587	9,405	99	20,068	2,535	22,577	411	1,960	45,159	25,112	2,371	72,642
Pensioners	303	242	2	1,057	505	1,396	60	657	1,604	1,941	717	4,922
Inhabitants of poor-houses and other charitable institutions	22	35	9	538	129	22	...	3	604	151	3	758
Other poor	1,591	4,637	274	11,255	6,685	7,153	...	9	17,757	13,838	9	31,604
Hospital members	219	689	172	1,259	78	132	3	20	2,339	210	23	2,572
Prisoners	395	1,141	74	368	8	8	...	...	1,978	10	...	1,988
Students who are not at home with their parents	1	...	...	...	1,712	221	...	14	1	1,933	14	1,948
Public women	...	...	...	110	2	1	...	...	110	3	...	113
Persons without any designation	155	173	40	1,724	581	1,021	12	395	2,092	1,602	407	4,101
	18,470	16,639	673	37,694	12,656	33,645	582	3,888	73,476	46,301	4,470	124,247

TABLE showing Weekly Earnings of the Industrial Classes employed in Agriculture, &c.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min. per Week.	Max. per Week.	Min. per Week.	Max. per Week.
	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Agricultural labourers ..	1 24	1 96	5 3	8 0
Head gardeners	2 60	3 60	11 3	15 6
Labourers	1 96	2 0	8 1	8 10
Women weeders	1 24	1 60	5 3	6 8
Man, horse, and cart ..	4 96	5 48	21 3	24 0
Dressing wood for shipment ..	3 60	4 0	16 0	17 9
Common labourers at ditto ..	2 0	2 48	8 10	10 7

WEEKLY Rates of Wages in Woollen Factories.

Employments.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Sp. sk.	Sp.	s. d.	s. d.
Wool sorters—women ..	..	2 0	..	8 10
Ditto washers	..	3 0	..	13 4
Overseers	..	6 0	..	26 8
Assistants	3 0	4 0	13 4	17 9
Carders	3 0	4 0	13 4	17 9
Spinners—				
Boys	..	2 0	..	8 10
Foremen	..	6 0	..	26 8
Warpers and beamers ..	3 0	4 0	13 4	17 9
Reelers	..	2 0	..	8 10
Overseers (British)	..	..	..	60 0
Assistants	3 0	4 0	13 4	17 9
Weavers	2 0	3 0	8 10	13 4
Burlers	..	2 0	..	8 10
Overseers	..	6 0	..	26 8
Dressers—				
Foremen	..	6 0	..	26 8
Fullers	..	3 0	..	13 4
Dressers or giggers	..	3 0	..	13 4
Finishers—				
Men	..	3 0	..	13 4
Women	..	2 0	..	8 10
Press tenders	..	3 0	..	13 4
Drawers	..	3 0	..	13 4
Brushers	..	2 0	..	8 10
Packers	..	3 0	..	13 4
Overseers	..	6 0	..	26 8
Assistants	3 0	4 0	13 4	17 9
Engineers—Foremen ..	..	4 0	..	17 9
Mechanics	4 0	6 0	17 9	26 8
Labourers	..	3 0	..	13 4

Weekly Rate of Wages in Cotton Mills.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
Carding Department—	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Overseer	..	6 0	..	26 8
Picker-tenders	..	2 48	..	10 8
Drawing frame-tenders ..	..	1 72	..	7 1
Picker-boys	..	1 48	..	6 2
Grinders	..	3 0	..	13 4
Strippers	..	3 0	..	13 4
Spinning Department—				
Overseer	4 0	5 0	17 9	22 2
Mule spinner	..	1 72	..	7 1
Mule backside piecers ..	..	1 48	..	6 2
Frame spinners	..	1 48	..	6 2
Dressing Department—				
Spoolers—women	..	2 0	..	8 10
Warpers	3 0	4 0	13 4	17 9
Drawers and twisters ..	2 0	3 0	8 10	13 4
Dressers	3 0	4 0	13 4	17 9
Weaving Department—				
Overseers	5 0	6 22	22 2	26 8
Weavers .. .	2 0	3 0	8 10	13 4
Drawers in hand	2 0	3 0	8 10	13 4
Repair Engine-room—				
Iron workers	..	4 0	..	17 9
Engineer	..	6 0	..	26 8
Labourers	..	3 0	..	13 4
Cloth Room—				
Overseer	4 0	6 0	17 9	26 8
Second hand	..	3 0	..	13 4

It is to be observed that cotton and woollen goods in this country are all of a second or third-rate quality, none being manufactured of a first-rate quality.

Weekly Rate of Wages in Paper-Mills.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Machine tenders	3 72	5 0	16 0	22 2½
Assistant tenders	2 48	3 0	10 8	13 4
Rag cutters—				
Men	2 48	..	10 8	..
Women	1 24	2 0	5 4	8 10
Enginemen	3 0	3 72	13 4	16 0
Assistants	2 48	3 0	18 8	13 4
Bleachers	2 48	..	18 8	..
Sizers	2 48	..	18 8	..
Carpenters	3 72	..	16 0	..
Blacksmiths	3 72	..	16 0	..
Carters	2 48	..	18 8	..
Boys	1 60	..	6 8	..

Weekly Wages in Sail-Cloth Manufactories.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Hacklers	3 60	..	16 0	..
Women, spinners, twiners, and preparers	1 24	1 60	..	6 4
Children	1 0	1 48	..	3 2
Weaving is by piece of sail-cloth of 36 yards	..	..	0 9½	0 10½
Hushing or crashing, ditto, 40 yards	..	..	0 9½	0 10½

The sail-cloth manufactory in Christiania employs about 500 people, and appears based on the Dundee system; earnings much the same as in Scotland, but skilled labour proportionately not so good. Two English foremen receive respectively 200*l.* and 300*l.* per annum.

Monthly Rate of Wages of Miners, Quarrymen, &c.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Miners	7 24	8 0	32 0	35 6
Ditto on tutwork or contract ..	8 0	12 0	35 6	53 4
Cobbers and spallers, per barrel	4 0	6 0	17 9	26 8
Common labourers	5 0	7 0	21 2	22 2
Quarrymen, working per fathom of stone	8 0	12 0	35 6	53 4
Smelters	9 0	12 0	40 0	53 4
Chemical workers	9 0	14 0	40 0	62 2

Monthly Rate of Wages of Railway Officials, 1870.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
Traffic Department—	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Station masters (some with percentages)	15 0	40 0	66 8	177 9
			£ s.	£ s.
Goods clerks at principal stations ..	12 0	25 0	2 18	5 11
Chief telegraph and booking clerks..	8 0	22 0	1 15	4 18
Telegraph clerks at intermediate stations	6 0	8 0	1 6	1 15
Porters	..	12 0	..	2 14
Foremen at goods stations ..	12 0	16 0	2 13	3 11
Horse drivers	..	13 0	..	2 18
Head guards (with mileage and extra for Sundays) ..	14 0	25 0	3 2	5 11
Under guards (ditto) ..	12 0	16 0	2 13	3 11
Locomotive Department—				
Engine drivers	35 0	45 0	7 15	9 7
Firemen..	18 0	21 0	4 0	4 13
Mechanics, smiths, carpenters	14 0	22 0	3 2	4 18
Labourers	10 0	14 0	2 4	3 2
Foremen	25 0	35 0	5 11	7 15
Permanent Way—				
Foremen platelayers ..	14 0	20 0	3 2	4 9
Platelayers	12 0	13 0	2 13	2 18
Labourers	10 0	12 0	2 5	2 13
Steamboat Service—				
Captains..	25 0	41 60	5 11	9 5
Mates	..	20 0	..	4 9
Engineers	30 0	35 0	6 13	7 16
Firemen	13 0	15 0	2 18	3 7
Sailors	12 0	13 0	2 13	2 18
Chief Office and Workshops—				
Clerks	12 0	40 0	2 13	8 18

Weekly Wages in Iron-Foundries and Machine-Shops.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Skilled draughtsmen ..	9 0	16 0	2 0 0	3 12 0
Mechanics—				
Best	4 96	6 0	1 1 4	1 6 8
Second	3 72	4 72	0 16 0	1 0 6
Ordinary	2 48	2 84	0 10 7	0 12 0
Blacksmiths .. .	4 96	5 60	1 1 4	1 4
Ditto assistants	2 48	3 0	0 10 7	0 13
Riveters	2 48	3 0	0 10 7	0 13
Holders, &c.	2 0	2 60	0 9 0	0 11 6
Boiler-makers	4 0	5 0	0 17 9	1 2 2
Ditto assistants	2 48	3 0	0 10 7	0 13 4
Pattern-makers	4 96	5 60	1 1 4	1 4 8
Moulders	3 0	5 60	0 13 4	1 4 8
Joiners	3 72	4 96	0 16 0	1 1 4
Ditto assistants	2 48	2 84	0 10 7	0 12 0
Labourers, carters, &c. ..	2 48	3 0	0 10 7	0 12 0
Apprentices and boys ..	1 24	2 0	0 5 4	0 9 0
Brass founders	3 0	4 0	0 13 4	0 17 9
Ditto turners	3 0	4 0	0 13 4	0 17 9
Millwrights	4 0	5 0	0 17 9	1 2 2
Ditto assistants	2 48	3 0	0 10 7	0 13 4
Engineers	8 0	12 0	1 15 6	2 13 4

Weekly Wages in the Building Trade and its Branches.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
House carpenters, according to proficiency	3 72	6 0	16 0	26 8
Sawers and timber huggers, ditto	2 48	4 96	10 7	21 3
Joiners, ditto	3 72	4 96	16 0	21 3
Common joiners	3 48	4 24	15 1	18 7
Stone cutters	3 72	6 0	16 0	26 8
Quarrymen, being furnished with tools	2 48	3 72	10 7	16 0
Bricklayers	3 72	6 0	16 0	26 8
Masons	2 80	3 0	11 10	13 4
Tile layers	3 72	6 0	16 0	26 8
Smiths	3 72	5 0	16 0	22 2
Brickmakers	3 0	3 72	13 4	16 0
Ditto, foremen	4 0	6 0	17 9	26 8
Common labourers	1 96	2 48	8 0	10 7
Builders' foremen	6 0	9 0	26 8	40 0
Journeymen cabinetmakers ..	4 24	7 24	18 7	32 0
Plasterers	3 0	3 72	13 4	16 0
Cornice makers, &c... ..	5 0	7 60	22 2	33 4
Shipwrights .. .	4 4	6 0	21 3	26 8
Painters	2 48	3 72	10 7	16 0
Plumbers	3 0	4 0	13 4	17 9

Ten working hours per day. When on contract, in the summer, men frequently work from fourteen to sixteen hours per day, and receive wages in proportion.

Weekly Wages of Gas-Workers and Fitters.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Firemen	3 0	3 60	13 4	15 6
Purifiers	2 48	3 72	10 7	16 0
Engineers	..	4 24	..	18 7
Carpenters..	3 72	..	16 0	..
Bricklayers	3 72	..	16 0	..
Blacksmiths	2 84	4 0	12 0	17 9
Pipe-layers	2 84	3 36	12 0	14 8
Gasfitters	2 84	4 96	12 0	21 3
Layer of main gas and water pipes	3 72	4 96	16 0	21 3
Lamplighters	1 0	..	4 6	..
Labourers	2 0	2 48	8 10	10 7
Boys	1 60	1 96	6 8	8 0
Foremen	3 72	4 0	16 0	17 9

Weekly Wages of Journeymen Hatters.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Hatmakers	3 60	4 0	15 6	17 9
Finishers, blackers, &c. ..	4 0	5 0	17 9	22 2
Engineer workmen	4 0	5 0	17 9	22 2
Common workmen	2 60	3 0	11 1	13 4
Foremen	6 0	7 0	26 8	31 1

Weekly Wages of Printers, Bookbinders, and Type-Founders.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
Printers—	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Type-setters, compositors ..	4 0	5 0	17 9	22 2
Printers	3 0	5 0	13 4	22 2
Boys	1 0	2 0	4 5	8 10
Girls	1 0	1 24	4 5	5 4
Bookbinders—				
Gilders	4 60	5 0	20 0	22 2
Journeymen	3 60	4 60	15 7	20 0
Girls	1 72	2 24	7 1	9 9
Type founders—				
Journeymen	4 0	5 0	17 9	26 8
Grinders	2 0	2 60	8 10	11 1
Boys	0 60	1 60	2 3	6 8

Weekly Wages of Shipwrights, Ropemakers, and Sailmakers.

Employment.	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Foremen	6 0	12 0	26 8	53 4
Assistant ditto	4 96	..	21 3	..
Master riggers	6 0	..	26 8	..
Shipwrights	3 0	3 72	13 4	16 0
Caulkers	2 64	..	11 2	..
Labourers	2 48	..	10 6	..
Boys	1 24	1 84	5 4	7 6

MISCELLANEOUS Trades, per Day, Week, and Annum.

Employment.		Currency.		Sterling.	
		Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
Tailors and Shoemakers—		Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	s. d.
Journeymen ..	per day	0 72	0 96	2 8	3 6
Workmen ..	„	0 40	0 48	1 6	1 9
Apprentices ..	„	0 20	0 30	0 9	1 1
Painters and Glaziers	„	0 60	0 96	2 3	3 6
Journeymen ..	„	0 48	0 60	1 9	2 3
Boys	„	0 24	0 36	0 10½	1 5
Bakers—					
Journeymen ..	„	0 72	0 96	2 8	3 6
Boys	„	0 20	0 30	0 9	1 0
Dressmakers—					
Needlewomen ..	„	0 12	0 24	0 5	0 10
Errand boys ..	..	0 20	0 30	0 9	1 0
Office clerks ..	per an.	100 0	1000 0	22 5	223 0
Shopmen	„	100 0	500 0	22 5	111 0
Footmen, with board and livery ..	„	50 0	80 0	12 10	18 0
Coachmen, ditto ..	„	60 0	80 0	13 0	18 0
Women cooks ..	„	45 0	65 0	10 0	14 10
Maid servants ..	„	15 0	40 0	3 10	9 0
Cartman and horse ..	per day	0 96	1 24	3 6	5 6

Remarks.

It seldom occurs that land on an estate is let for agricultural or farming purposes.

The land is usually the property of those who cultivate it. The occupiers own it absolutely instead of being tenants; they, consequently, have no labour to perform, nor rent to pay.

No law of primogeniture exists; children inherit equally; consequently, it might be supposed that land would become infinitely subdivided, but such is not the case.

When a death occurs, and there are several children, the estate is impartially valued; at which valuation the eldest heir has the right to purchase it. After the expiration of six months he is bound to pay his co-heirs their respective portions. Should there be any heirs who happen not to have attained their majority, their portions remain as a mortgage lien on the property, which has to be paid out as soon as they become of age.

Should the eldest heir decline to take the property the next of kin can, under similar conditions, do so; and so on in consecutive order.

In the event of all the heirs declining to purchase, the property is sold for their benefit, and the proceeds are equally divided.

Should the property not be "odel free," that is to say, not free from entail, it can be repurchased by any one of the heirs within a period of three years at a sum fixed at the time by public valuation.

A property which has been in possession of any person, or his descendants, for a term of twenty consecutive years becomes "odel property," or entailed; and unless the entail has been broken with the consent of all concerned, and been duly registered in the Court of Registration, can be repurchased within the term stated.

A Norwegian farm consists of the "Indmark" or home farm, comprising the cultivated land around the chief dwelling and homestead. The "Udmark" comprising uncultivated ground and pasture; and the "Sœter," which is a chalet on mountain or moorland where cattle pasture during the summer months.

The work of the farm is generally carried on by the "Huusmœnd" or housemen (Cotters); these are labourers holding cottages with a small piece of land just sufficient to keep two cows and a few sheep or goats, usually for two lives, that is to say, the cotters and his widow's, with the obligation of rendering a certain number of days' work at a fixed low rate of wages, varying from 4*d.* to 8*d.* per day, including food.

These housemen pay no kind of taxes; and have, consequently, no suffrage, either parochial or administrative. As their position is far from lucrative, many have of late years emigrated to the United States.

Endeavours have been made to improve the material as well as the intellectual condition of the working classes.

Savings banks have been established; tenements built for workmen and their families; soup kitchens opened; co-operative societies formed; and washing and bathing establishments introduced, which have, generally speaking, prospered and borne satisfactory results.

The deposits in the savings banks and co-operative

societies form a striking proof of the prosperity of these establishments.

There are, at this moment, no less than 250 of the above banks, of which some are penny banks.

	Currency.	Sterling.
	Spd.	£
In 1862 the deposits amounted to..	14,408,875	3,201,740
1863 „ „ ..	16,128,674	3,584,150
1864 „ „ ..	17,458,854	3,879,634
1865 „ „ .	18,774,400	4,170,091
1866 „ „ ..	19,632,436	4,362,756
1867 „ „ ..	20,654,983	4,589,996
1868 „ „ ..	21,418,921	4,757,649

These returns show a steady annual increase of deposits, made principally by the industrial classes, such as small traders, operatives, servants, and labourers.

The lowest deposit taken is 12 skillings (6*d.*), except in penny savings banks; 4 per cent. interest being allowed, which is either paid out or carried to the principal at the end of the year.

The banks utilize the deposits by discounting exchange obligations. The documents have to be signed by three responsible persons for terms of three or four months, and become renewable at the end of each term on payment of one-tenth in reduction of the principal until the whole is paid off.

By lending on mortgage, State obligations, shares, &c., the rate of interest or discount varies from 5 to 6 per cent., according to the stringency of the money market.

A certain portion of the surplus revenue, after deducting the expense of management, &c., goes to form a fundamental capital, and whenever this amounts to $\frac{1}{15}$th of the deposits, the surplus thence accruing is appropriated for benevolent objects and public improvements of various kinds.

A certain number out of the depositors being elected trustees, everything connected with these establishments is submitted to them, the accounts being regularly published and widely circulated.

Lodging-houses for the Labouring Classes.

Four capacious lodging-houses have been constructed in Christiania for the labouring classes, affording accommodation for fifty families. Each family being furnished with one room, 11 feet by 11 and 10 feet in height; with kitchen, loft, cellar, a yard containing a large wash-house for the joint use of the inmates enabling them to take in washing, at a rental of 7*l.* 10*s.* per annum.

In consequence of these lodging-houses having answered so satisfactorily, a fifth is now in course of construction.

They have been built partly in shares and partly with money borrowed on mortgage, and the shareholders, as well as the mortgagees, have hitherto received 5 per cent. on their respective investment; the former as dividend, and the latter as agreed interest. These payments have been made, leaving a clear surplus of 200*l.* which sum has been carried to a reserved sum.

Not only is the accommodation thus furnished superior to what the labouring man can obtain in private lodgings, or to what he has been accustomed to, but also cheaper; and by being under the supervision of the police, these dwellings are kept in greater order and cleanliness.

In order to accommodate larger families, detached cottages have been contemplated to be built on the outskirts of the town, and to be on the same principle, with the same laudable objects in view.

Co-operative Societies.

The introduction of Co-operative Societies is, comparatively, of recent date. The system, however, has been successfully carried out, and is spreading throughout the country.

The returns of five of these societies have now been obtainable, showing profit of 9½ per cent., with an expenditure for management of 5½ per cent., leaving a surplus of 4*l.* per per cent. A portion of this has been returned to the members in the shape of dividend, and the remainder has been carried to a reserved fund. The respective members having had the benefit of being supplied with unadulterated wares at moderate prices.

These five societies register 21,835 members, all heads of families.

Labourers' Unions.

Strikes are as yet scarcely known, even by name. No instance is on record of any combination having occurred to coerce masters with the view to obtain higher wages.

These unions are strictly Friendly Societies, their objects being to insure assistance in case of sickness, and decent burial in case of death; to promote education and thereby to raise the social position of the working man; and, in certain eventualities, to afford him pecuniary aid.

There are altogether seventy unions of this description in the country; but as yet access has been obtainable only to forty-two returns of the above number of unions, of which thirty-two render aid in cases of sickness or death, and are, therefore, strictly friendly societies. They number 4,816 members.

Six afford pecuniary aid, and at the same time, profess to further education and social position. These number 2,986 members.

Six limit themselves solely to the promotion of education, having 1,685 members.

Unconnected with the above Societies, there is a law which compels mining works to support their own poor, and to maintain schools for the education of the workmen's children. Towards these objects a monthly deduction of 2*l.* to 3*l.* per cent. is generally made from the earnings of the men.

Large manufactories and industrial establishments have, as a rule, their own special communities; to which the work-people by mutual agreement contribute, receiving in return aid in case of sickness; these are supported by 2,092 members.

Of the forty-two unions, from which returns have been made, 59 per cent. of the members were of the working-classes; 14 per cent. small traders; and 10 per cent. public servants. The remaining 17 per cent. could not be grouped under either of the above heads, but appeared to consist of domestic servants and others having no distinct profession or calling, but earning their living by casual work.

The weekly contribution of each member varies from two to three pence.

The aid supplied in case of sickness varies from five to ten shillings a-week.

In some cases, when needed, medical attendance has been provided in addition to pecuniary aid.

The means by which education and social intercourse between the respective members of these unions are promoted, are by periodical lectures followed by discussion; and by free access to books, periodicals, and literature suitable to their position.

These lectures are generally held gratuitously by public professional persons, engineers, and other practical men.

Libraries are being gradually formed, partly by contributions from the members; but, hitherto, mainly by free gifts. They contain severally from 500 to 1,500 volumes.

The facility of access to these books, together with the occasional meetings afforded to the working man by means of these unions, tend much to improve his condition, and to raise him morally from any contamination which often his vocation may expose him to.

Independent of these unions there are, in every seaport town and district in Norway, charitable institutions established exclusively for the benefit of seamen, their widows, and children. These are maintained chiefly by voluntary contributions, collected by the Registrar of Seamen, whose functions are similar to those of the shipping masters in England.

Royal Marine Permanent Establishment.

Capacity.	Wages per Month.		Allowance for Quarters.		Portions of Rations allowed every 28 Days.
	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.	
	Sp. sk.	£ s. d.	Sp. sk.	s. d.	
Assistants (to Superintendents) ..	12 0	2 13 4	4 0	17 9½	2
Head gunners and boatswains ..	10 0	2 4 5½	3 0	13 4	1½
Foremen	9 0	2 0 0	3 0	13 4	1
Gunners and boatswains ..	6 0	1 6 8	2 60	11 1	1
Under gunners and boatswains' mates	4 60	1 0 0	2 0	8 10½	1
Under gunners' mates and quarter-masters	3 0	0 13 4	1 80	7 5	1
A.B. sailors, 1st class musicians .	2 60	0 11 1	1 60	6 8	1
Ordinary seamen and 2nd class musicians	2 0	0 8 10½	1 60	6 8	1
3rd class musicians	1 80	0 7 5	0 60	2 3	1
4th class musicians	1 60	0 6 8	0 60	2 3	1
Apprentices	100	0 3 8	0 60	2 3	1
Sergeants	7 0	1 11 1	3 0	13 4	1½

Naval Artizans, &c.—Permanent Establishment.

Wages per Month on Shore.

Employment.	Wages.		Allowance for Quarters.		Portions of Rations every 28th day.	Per Day.	
	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.		Currency.	Sterling.
	Sp. sk.	£ s. d.	Sp. sk.	s. d.		Sk.	d.
Master ship-builders ..	15 0	3 6 8	4 0	17 9½	2	..	..
Foremen, 1st class ..	6 0	1 6 8	3 0	13 4	1	30	11½
Ditto, 2nd class ..	3 60	0 15 7	2 60	11 1	1	24	10½
Mechanics, 1st class ..	10 0	2 4 5½	4 0	17 9	1½	36	¼
Ditto, 2nd class . ..	6 0	1 6 8	3 0	13 4	1½	32	½
Ditto, 3rd class . ..	3 60	0 15 7	2 60	11 1	1½	26	11
Ditto, 4th class . ..	2 90	0 12 4	2 60	11 1	1¼	24	10½
Smiths, 1st class ..	1 60	0 6 8	7 5	1 80	1½	21	9½
Ditto, 2nd class . ..	1 60	0 6 8	1 60	6 8	1½	18	8
Ditto, 3rd class . ..	1 60	0 6 8	1 60	6 8	1½	15	6½
Ditto, 4th class . ..	1 0	0 4 6	1 60	6 8	1½	12	6
Ditto, 5th class . ..	1 0	0 4 6	0 60	2 3	1½	9	4
Carpenters, 1st class ..	1 60	0 6 8	1 80	7 5	1	23	10
Ditto, 2nd class . ..	1 60	0 6 8	1 60	6 8	1	20	8¾
Ditto, 3rd class . ..	1 60	0 6 8	1 60	6 8	1	17	7½
Ditto, 4th class . ..	1 0	0 4 6	1 60	6 8	1	14	6
Ditto, 5th class . ..	1 0	0 4 6	0 60	2 3	1	11	4¾
Coopers, sailmakers, rope-makers, and stokers:							
1st class	1 60	0 6 8	1 60	6 8	1	18	8
2nd class	1 60	0 6 8	1 60	6 8	1	15	6¼
3rd class	1 0	0 4 5	1 60	6 8	1	12	5¼
4th class	1 0	0 4 5½	0 60	2 3	1	9	4
Apprentices, 1st class ..	0 100	0 3 8	0 60	2 3	1	4	1¾
Ditto, 2nd class . ..	..	..	0 60	2 3	1	2	1
	7 0	1 11 1	3 0	13 4	1½	..	..

While on shore, provisions are served out every twenty-eight days in portions containing :—

5 lbs. pork (18 ozs. avoirdupois to the pound).
8 lbs. salt beef.
4 lbs. butter.
4 quarts barley grits.
2 quarts peas.
45 quarts rye.
27 quarts barley.
1 barrel of coals or ½ fathom of 2 feet long fir firewood during six winter months, and half that quantity during the six summer months.

With respect to clothes, assistants, head gunners, boatswains, and sergeants, find their own; but all others are found with the following articles :—

Gunners, boatswains' mates, and firemen, annually—
2 shirts.
1 pair duck trousers.
2 pair stockings.
1 pair shoes.
1 black neck-tie.

Every second year—
1 coat, dark blue cloth.
1 vest, ditto.
1 pair trousers, ditto.
1 cap, ditto.

Every fourth year—
1 pilot jacket.

The other warrant officers, annually, the same as gunners' mates.

Every second year, instead of a coat 1 jacket.
Every fourth year, as the gunners' mates.

Sailors and apprentices, annually, as gunners' mates, besides 1 blue woollen shirt.

Every second year—
1 jacket of dark blue cloth.

Every fourth year—
1 pea jacket.
1 canvas frock.
1 pair trousers, ditto.

Artizans :—Foremen and mechanics as gunners; apprentices as gunners.

Every second year—
1 jacket.
1 pair trousers.
1 hat.

Sundry Regulations.—Permanent Men.

1. A man performing extra work is paid according to a fixed scale.

2. Usual work performed overtime is paid proportionately.

3. Men on the sick list, as well as their wives and children, are entitled to medical attendance and medicine free of expense; and are admitted into hospital, where such an establishment exists; but married men forfeit their monthly half-ration, and unmarried men the whole.

4. At Carljohansvarn and at Fredricksvarn, workmen's children receive a free education in the local public schools.

5. The expenses of a funeral is defrayed by the Navy Board.

Wages at Sea.

	Monthly Wages.						
	Currency.		Sterling.				
	Sp.	sk.	£	s.	d.		
1st class gunner and boatswain ..	17	0	3	15	6½	When acting as Accountants, 2½ dollars (11s. 1d.) additional.	
Gunners and boatswains	13	0	2	17	9		
Under gunner and boatswains' mates ..	9	60	2	2	3		
Under gunner's mate and quartermasters	7	60	1	13	4		
A.B. seamen, 1st class	6	0	1	6	8	For ditto, 1½ dollar (6s. 8d.) additional.	
,, 2nd class	5	60	1	4	5		
Ordinary seamen, 1st class	3	20	0	14	1		
,, 2nd class	3	0	0	13	4		
Apprentices	2	0	0	8	10		
Musicians, 1st class	7	0	1	11	1		
,, 2nd class	5	60	1	4	5		
,, 3rd class	3	20	0	14	1		
,, 4th class	3	0	0	13	4		
,, 5th class	2	20	0	9	7		

a. In addition to the foregoing pay, every man is entitled to rations.

b. After the expiration of the first term the same addition is made as on shore.

c. On being called out on transport or any other service for a brief period, ships' rations not being served out, an allowance of 24 skillings (10½*d.*) for warrant officers, and 16 skillings (7*d.*) for others, is made per day, besides shore wages.

d. Men serving as cooks are entitled to an additional 2 specie-dollars (9*s.*) per month; and men doing duty as cook's mates, nurses, or coal-heavers, to an additional dollar (4*s.* 5*d.*) per month.

Mechanics and Artizans.

Capacity.	Monthly Wages. Currency. Sp. sk.	Monthly Wages. Sterling. £ s. d.	
Mechanics, 1st class	30 0	6 13 4	*a.* Rations allowed to every man.
,, 2nd class	28 0	6 4 5	
,, 3rd class	23 0	5 2 2	
,, 4th class	20 0	4 8 10	*b.* On transport or other service for brief periods, warrant officers receive 24 skillings (10½*d.*) per day instead of rations; others, 16 skillings (7*d.*).
Foremen, 1st class	18 0	4 0 0	
,, 2nd class	16 0	3 11 1	
Artizans, 1st class	10 0	2 4 5	
,, 2nd class	9 0	2 0 0	
,, 3rd class	8 60	1 17 8	
,, 4th class	7 60	1 13 4	
,, 5th class	5 60	1 4 5	

Sailing-masters, when at sea, receive the same wages as on shore, with the addition of pecuniary allowances in lieu of rations. in accordance with the Law of 1848.

When men are called out on sea service, their wives and children receive half land rations, as long as the husband or father, as the case may be, is on service.

Men away from their ships on sick-leave, provided they are not at home, are entitled to sea-pay until their return; but their absence from the ship must not exceed three months.

Regulations respecting Registered Seamen who are liable to be called out.

1. Men, when called out, have to be conveyed at the expense of the public, to the place of meeting, and back to their homes, when their services are no longer required.

2. Wages commence the day the order to meet is served, and continues until his return home, or until the day of his discharge, with the addition of the number of days necessary for him to reach his home :—

		Spd.	£ s. d.
A mate ..	.. per month	12	= 2 13 4
An A.B. ..	.. ,,	5	= 1 2 3
An ordinary seaman	.. ,,	3½	= 0 15 7

Men absent from the place of meeting, when their names are called, receive pay from the day on which they make their appearance.

3. From the period at which a mate is called upon to do duty as chief mate, or only mate, he receives an additional monthly allowance of 2 dollars (9*s.*)

4. For any period during which a seaman is called upon to do duty as cook, he is entitled to a monthly addition of 2 dollars; or as cook's mate, nurse, or coal-heaver, 1 dollar (4*s.* 6*d.*)

5. While on board only seamen receives the prescribed rations. From the day on which he is ordered to the meeting, to the day on which he is mustered on board, he is entitled to one ration, or 24 skillings per day; as also from the day he is discharged, until the day he reaches his home.

6. The wife is entitled to the value of half the land rations, as well as the children, when under the age of 15.

7. When a man has been called out, and is temporarily sent home, to be again called out, he is not entitled to rations, or their equivalents, while at home; but only to his wages, as fixed in No. 2.

8. Any illness caught since leaving home, entitles the patient to free cure and medical attendance, and free conveyance home; his wages being paid up to the day of his arrival; but in no case for a period exceeding three months after leaving the vessel. If placed in hospital before the crew are mustered, the three months must be reckoned from the day he has been placed there. When, after being called out, a man dies on his journey to the place of meeting, the burial is defrayed by the State.

9. When a man called out is deficient of outfit, necessary clothing may be provided, and the expenses deducted from his pay.

The Mercantile Marine.

Norway, from its geographical position, and extent of sea-board, is eminently more maritime and commercial than agricultural or manfufacturing. It has developed its resources, particularly those connected with shipping, more prominently, in proportion to its population, than any other country.

All male inhabitants of towns or districts along the coast, supporting themselves by piloting, serving in ships, yachts, or boats, as well as those employed in floating timber, ship-builders, and those engaged in the fisheries,

are compelled to enrol themselves on the Seamen's Register, and are liable to be called out for naval service when needed.

Only registered seamen can be employed for piloting, for foreign-going voyages, or for sea fisheries.

Before engaging himself on board a foreign-going vessel, a seaman must obtain a ticket from the Registrar, which is granted without a fee. This ticket, on joining a ship, must be handed over to the captain.

It only requires to refer to official returns to show how rapidly the mercantile marine has developed itself, and how important a position it has assumed.

It has been a prevailing opinion that Norwegian sailors were badly paid, and badly fed; but neither of these assumptions are borne out by the following Tables, which show the rate of wages earned by masters, mates, and seamen on board vessels averaging from 200 to 600 tons.

MERCHANT SEAMEN'S Wages per Month.

	Currency.		Sterling.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Sp. sk.	Sp. sk.	£ s.	£ s.
Masters, with 5 per cent. on freight .	20 0.	30 0	4 9	6 13
Chief mates	15 0	20 0	3 7	4 9
Second mates	10 0	14 0	2 5	3 2
Carpenters	12 0	14 0	2 13	3 2
Cooks..	10 0	12 0	2 5	2 13
A.B. seamen	10 0	12 0	2 5	2 13
Ordinary seamen	7 0	9 0	1 11	2 0
Boys or apprentices	5 0	6 0	1 2	1 7

Norwegian vessels are generally better manned than the English. Where the latter employ twelve men, the former have fifteen men. More harmony also appears to exist between a Norwegian master and his crew than is found on board an English vessel of the same class.

Scale of Stores issued in Norwegian Merchant Vessels for Short Voyages per Week.

Butter .. .. 1¼ lb.
Biscuit .. .. 7 lbs.
3 days a-week, salt beef .. .. 1¼ lb.
with pea soup.
4 days a-week, fresh fish or stock-fish and porridge.
Tea or coffee for breakfast, and often as much small beer as required.

On long voyages rations are as follows:—

Butter	1 lb.
Biscuit	7 lbs.
Salt beef	4 „
Salt pork	2½ „
Vinegar	½ quart.

Tea or coffee for breakfast, and when in port, fresh meat and vegetables.
A Norwegian lb. is 2 oz. heavier than an English lb.
When hard worked, or much exposed in bad weather, 1 to 2 glasses of grog per day.

STEAM-VESSELS—Monthly Wages.

	Currency.				Sterling.			
	Min.		Max.		Min.		Max.	
	Sp.	sk.	Sp.	sk.	£	s.	£	s.
Masters, including percentage	40	0	50	0	8	18	11	3
Chief mates (provisions while on board) ..	20	0	25	0	4	11	5	11
Second mates (ditto)	16	0	20	0	3	11	4	11
Chief engineers (ditto)	25	0	30	0	5	11	6	13
Second engineers (ditto)	16	0	20	0	3	11	4	11
Carpenters (ditto)	13	0	15	0	2	18	3	7
Stokers or firemen (ditto)	13	0	15	0	2	18	3	7
Seamen (ditto)	12	0	13	0	2	13	3	7

The Registrar of Seamen in Norway has to superintend the engagement of seamen for foreign-going vessels, the same as a superintendent in England. No vessel can be cleared at the Custom-house without articles having been previously signed in presence of a Registrar.

The *pro-rata* contribution from every seaman is agreed upon, which, on completion of the voyage, is paid by the master to the Registrar, and by him to the cashier of the institution to which the seaman belongs.

Formerly there existed but one sailor's institution for the whole country, but now there may be found one in every registering district. These tend much to attach seamen to their respective homes.

Schools in Norway.

In Norway primary education is obligatory for all children without distinction. Education, consequently, is diffused among all classes throughout the land, and is, therefore, far more general than with us in England.

The law enforcing it has now already existed upwards of a century.

In 1860 a general revision took place, and a law enacted that every child from the age of eight years should be compelled to attend a school at least three months in each year, unless the parents can satisfactorily prove that they can obtain their education at home.

The object of the law is to compel parents who cannot afford to pay for their children's education to send them to school, where they can receive religious instruction, and have an opportunity of acquiring, in a proportional degree, so much knowledge as is necessary that every member of the community should possess.

The "Almue" schools, or people's schools, as they are called, are divided into primary and secondary schools.

In the primary schools children are taught the rudimentary elements laid down. In the secondary schools they are taught the higher branches of education. The attendance in the latter schools is not compulsory, but is open to those who, after the age of twelve, are desirous of acquiring further instruction.

Education is free in the latter case when parents cannot afford to pay the small rate imposed by the municipality, which the schoolmaster is allowed to receive in addition to his fixed salary.

In primary schools the following instructions are given:—

Reading, writing, arithmetic, religion, and singing.

The books selected for reading are principally the bible, geography, elements of natural science, and history; and in some cases instructions are given in gymnastics and military exercises.

Schoolmasters have to be brought up in a Government training-school, where they have to pass a severe examination before being allowed to officiate.

Schools commence every day with a prayer and a psalm, and finish with some religious exercise.

They are maintained by a rate levied on the "matrient" (the fixed official value of each estate), by voluntary contributions, legacies, public funds, and state contributions.

From official return there existed in 1866-1867 6,344 schools, to which 212,136 children were bound to

attend. Of this number only 5,514 were absent from various causes.

Besides the above number there were 40 industrial schools for girls, and 11 infant schools.

The expenditure for these establishments, during the above period, amounted to 717,708 sp., equal to 159,490*l.* Of this sum the state contributed 26,082*l.*

These schools are under the special supervision of the clergyman of the district, and are periodically visited by Government inspectors.

In thinly populated districts, where the inhabitants are widely scattered, the parish is divided into circles, which the schoolmaster visits in rotation. The children are assembled at the nearest convenient farm, if no school has been provided; but a school is erected at the public expense when 30 children can be collected.

From accessible documents I have, as far as practicable, classified, in the foregoing tables, the earnings of the industrial classes in this country. These classes, however, chiefly belong to towns, and form but a small proportion of the whole, as the following Table will show:—

DISTRIBUTION of Population in Norway.

Locality or Calling.	Population.					
	1815.	1825.	1835.	1845.	1855.	1865.
Mountains ..	14,548	192,268	218,608	234,178	249,644	262,174
Lowlands ..	200,898	240,855	271,924	293,688	324,373	354,874
Forest ..	74,465	89,052	102,590	113,543	125,913	143,461
Sea-coast ..	69,453	82,025	93,998	106,228	117,795	135,810
Fishing ..	238,013	275,536	313 314	350,182	393,276	439,884
Industrial ..	43,764	52,842	59,848	66,926	75,781	99,261
Country ..	781,741	932,219	1,060,282	1,164,745	1,286,782	1,435,464
Towns ..	94,633	119,099	134,545	163,726	203,265	266,292
Total ..	886,374	1,051,318	1,194,827	1,328,471	1,490,047	1,701,756

There exists but few inland towns. An occasional cluster of small farm-houses and buildings is the nearest approach to what may be termed a village.

Farmers, being proprietors of the land, with their housemen, and servants, and foresters, seem to form the whole of the inland population.

Skilled mechanics or handicraftsmen are few, and those not the best of their kind. They generally travel

from farm to farm, in order to do some special work to which the skill of the houseman or labourer is found to be inadequate. They reside and live with their casual employers during the term of their temporary service. Farmers weave their own linen and cloth, and tan their own leather.

Itinerant tailors and shoemakers make their periodical rounds, and, during their stay at a farm-house, live at the table of their employers.

They seldom earn more than the equivalent of 1*s.* or 1*s.* 3*d.* per day, in addition to their board and lodging.

Railways have in many parts of the country, materially assisted the farmer in getting a better market for the produce of his land; but, as a rule, either a market does not exist, or it is inconveniently distant.

Small proprietors invariably have their estates encumbered. When so fortunate as to possess some forest they find means to pay the interest due, as well as for the few domestic necessaries not supplied by their farm. To effect this, however, their forests are too frequently heavily taxed. Meanwhile, his mode of life is stunted; luxuries are unknown, and if in his own eyes he has saved himself the worst evils of penury, it is only by having learnt to deny himself many comforts which in a more advanced country would be considered indispensable even to the commonest of labourers.

When social grades only correspond in name, they do not bear comparison with those of other countries. The small farmer and his housemen differ but little in their means and habits from the English day-labourer; more especially when single, as he is then lodged and boarded with his scarcely superior master, receiving a trifling money payment of 3*d.* or 4*d.* per day. When married the cotter holds a cottage and plot of ground at a labour rent, as previously described.

The food, both of the master and labourer, is of an inferior description, consisting of coarse rye, or barley bread, porridge of barley or oats, potatoes, or salt fish. Fresh meat is but seldom seen on the table of the small farmer, and to the labourer it is a rare luxury. Coffee alone is much consumed, both morning and afternoon, in the poorest cottage.

The Norwegian labourer is nevertheless not a very discontented being. His wants are few, so that his

position after all may bear comparison with that of labourers belonging to wealthier countries. All is stint and parsimony, but the eye of the observer is not often shocked by scenes of distressing poverty.

It may be observed of the rural population of Norway that if not remarkable for intelligence there always exists a certain amount of rough-and-ready handiness. This, no doubt, is caused by the great want of skilled workmen. The common peasant can generally repair his own implement, vehicles, and harness; and in many instances, shoe his horses; and, owing to the system of compulsory education, can always read and write.

These qualities render the Norwegian an excellent and, generally, successful emigrant; and he is recognized as such in America and elsewhere.

Owing to the nature of the climate, work on the land is confined to some five or at most six months in the year. Forests yield means to the Norwegian to fill up the remainder.

This branch of industry is carried on in the following manner:—

A person whose position and duties are highly responsible and confidential is selected by the timber merchant to mark and purchase timber.

Ordinarily, the seller, through the agent, obtains a sum in advance to enable him to pay for the labour; for this advance the agent is responsible immediately to his principal, but as soon as possible secures himself by marking, with a specific axe, the felled logs; such a mark fully establishing legal right therein.

For this service the marker generally contracts with the merchant to receive from 8*d.* to 1*s.* sterling per dozen logs purchased.

Labour in the forest is chiefly done by contract. Felling and stripping the bark is the first process. Small trees are sometimes felled for 6*d.* to 8*d.* per dozen.

Timber which is intended for sawing will cost from 1*s.* to 3*s.*, according to the dimensions; for large timber, however, more would be paid. After having been felled, horses are used to draw the logs into convenient heaps to await the snow-fall, for further driving; when sledges can be used, and the logs can be dragged along the ice roads, they are transported to the frozen water-courses.

Driving, like felling, is generally carried on by piece work, and a dozen logs may, of course, demand very different prices, according to the distance and dimensions.

The owner of a horse is generally ready to agree for a price which will give him 3*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* for labour of horse and man per day.

Floating is undertaken by a company called the Timber Direction.

Much of the timber directions' work is done by contract; the day-labourer's wages range from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.* The cost to the merchant per dozen, delivered to his wharf on the water-course, is for 24 feet lengths 4*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.*, and for those in excess 5*s.* 9*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d.* per dozen.

At saw-mills where most of the timber is taken, wages vary very considerably, according to situation, skill, and power applied.

If water-power is used, day wages in the country range from 1*s* 3*d.* to 2*s.* 3*d.* per day; and for piece-work by the dozen of average sawing timber, 2*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* On steam-mills the wages are higher. An engineer paid by the day would get 3*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* Assistants, 2*s.* to 2*s.* 3*d.* Sawing-masters, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* Labourers, 1*s.* 3*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.*

On piece-work the engineer or sawing-master would expect per dozen 2*s.* 3*d.* to 2*s.* 9*d.*, and for larger dimensions in proportion from about 3*s.* to 5*s.*

The proprietor of a steam-mill will generally undertake to saw 6-inch timber at 3*s.* 3*d.* Battens timber up to 10-inch at 4*s.* 6*d.* per dozen, and larger dimensions in proportion.

On reference to the Table of distribution of the population it will be found that about one-fourth of the whole belongs to the fishing community, who depend for support on the produce of the sea, which likewise forms one of the chief sources of wealth to this country.

It not only affords a cheap article of consumption to the community in general, but also the means of providing themselves with small luxuries which are denied to many of the farmers, and also forms one of the staple exports of the country.

Their only incumbrances consist in the repayment of any advances they may have received for outfits from the merchants who buy their fish.

There are four main fisheries in the year. The winter and summer cod fishery, and the spring and autumn herring fishery. When not engaged in these fisheries, a portion proceed to the bank and arctic fisheries while others remain at home to repair their fishing gear, and to convey the cured fish to market. They generally fish in gangs or companies, of which a part man the yachts (a peculiar kind of coasting vessel employed for carrying the fish to market and bringing back their own provisions).

No exact rate of earnings can be given, as they so much depend on the state of the weather at the fishing season; but want or penury is seldom met with in that class of the community.

Until of late years many trades were shackled by restrictions imposed by guilds which existed in every town. No trade could be followed unless a man belonged to one of these, and had passed through the different grades of apprenticeship.

These restrictions have been gradually modified; and the last Storthing, by suppressing the whole, gave them the final blow. A salutary competition is now the result.

All trades are free, and can be followed by a foreigner as well as a native. No previous licence or permission is required, and no tax imposed beyond what every citizen is liable to.

Professional men—as lawyers and medical men—have to pass through strict ordeals before becoming duly qualified to practise.

Retail vendors of spirits and beer, as well as pawnbrokers, receive licence from the police authorities.

A commercial traveller for foreign houses must pay an annual tax of 10*l*.

Emigrant agents must give security to the amount of 5,000 sp. before they can set up an agency.

Landed and house property may be held by foreigners with all rights possessed by natives.

In drawing a comparison between the earnings of the industrial classes in Norway and those in the United Kingdom, the comparison must necessarily, for reasons already assigned, be confined to those located in, or in the neighbourhood of, the towns; and it will be found that the skilled artizan, as well as the common labourer, is more favourably situated in England than in this country.

No distinction is made here between skilled and unskilled labour.

Ten hours is generally considered a day's work.

The following is the average price of provisions in Christiania and other towns :—

		Currency.		Sterling.			
		Sk.	Sk.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
Mutton and beef	per lb.	10	to 12	0	5	to 0	6	Inferior article to English.
Veal	„	12	14	0	6	0	7	
Pork	„	12	16	0	6	0	8	
Coffee	„	24	28	0	10	1	2	
Tea	„	96	120	3	6	4	6	Inferior.
Sago	„	10	12	0	5	0	6	
Rice	„	9	12	0	4½	0	6	
Brown sugar	„	13	15	0	6½	0	7½	
Loaf sugar	„	18	20	0	9	0	10	
Green soap	„	10	12	0	5	0	6	
Yellow soap	„	10	16	0	5	0	8	
Rye bread	„	..	6	..		0	2½	
Butter	„	26	30	1	0	1	3	
Candles	„	18	24	0	9	1	0	
Birch-wood	..	240	360	9	0	13	6	Per fathom.
Fir-wood	..	192	240	7	2	9	0	6′ by 6′ 2″ broad.

Fuel, an article of imperative necessity, is, owing to the expense of carriage, dearer than Newcastle coals.

Clothing has mostly to be drawn from the factories in Germany and Great Britain, and the consumer has to pay the same price as that paid for the superior article in the above countries.

Another drawback in this country, a matter of no small importance, is that the military system compels every man to serve either in the army or navy. For the former the agricultural and other classes are selected, who have to serve annually one month; for the latter the coast and fishing population.

PERSIA.

Mr. Alison to Earl Granville.—(*Received December* 12.)

My Lord, *Tehran, November* 10, 1870.

With reference to the Earl of Clarendon's Circular of June 7th, I have the honour to inclose herewith copy of a Report which has been addressed to me by Mr. Jenner, on the condition of the working classes in Persia.

I have, &c.
(Signed) C. ALISON.

Inclosure.

Report by Mr. Jenner on the Condition of the Working Classes in Persia.

In obedience to your instructions with reference to the Earl of Clarendon's despatch of the 7th of June, I have the honour to report that I have lost no time in endeavouring to obtain the supplementary information concerning the working classes in Persia, which is called for by that despatch.

In reply to my letters, forwarding copies of the questions it contains, to the principal towns of Persia at which no Consular Agent resides, I have received five Reports, from Ispahan, Shiraz, Koum, Hamadan, and Kermanshah, all of them of an extremely meagre and uninteresting character, which criticism, as it applies equally to those which are the work of intelligent Europeans, and to those drawn up by natives, only bears out the opinion entertained by every one who has resided a short time in Persia, of the difficulty of obtaining any information of an accurate nature.

Two more Reports, which I expect from Bushire and Kashaw, will not be ready early enough for me to comment upon them in time for the post, by which your

reply to Lord Clarendon's Circular must be sent, to reach the Foreign Office within the limit prescribed by his Lordship.

From the tenor of his Lordship's despatch, I am inclined to infer that the information sought for is required with a view to ascertaining which are the countries best adapted for the reception of an immigration of the surplus of the working classes of Great Britain, in so far as the term "working classes" applies to that portion of the population which earns its livelihood by manual labour.

Alike from the opinion the Reports I have received enable me to form, and from the views of those most competent to decide upon this subject, I am led to express a positive judgment to the effect that no immigration composed of workmen seeking employment as individuals, would lead to anything but disappointment and ruin.

In the first place, with the exception of one or two branches of industry, such as the manufacture of carpets and shawls, in which the Persian workman excels our own, there is no demand for skilled labour. One or two workmen from each craft might succeed in making a fortune, if they could induce their Persian employers to pay them; but a dozen or two would glut the market.

Secondly, the cost of living upon the pittance which satisfies the Persian workman is so small, and the rate of wages, which is proportionately even smaller, so unremunerative, that no British workman could for a moment pretend to compete with the native labourer. The object of emigration, which is undoubtedly to effect an improvement in the condition of the emigrant, would certainly not be settled by coming to this country.

There is, however, one way in which an emigration to Persia might be profitable, in my opinion, to those engaged in it. Self-sufficing Colonies, composed of from 500 to 1,000, or more, members of both sexes might thrive, if engaged either in working some of the numerous mines to be found scattered all over Persia; or in manufacturing cotton stuffs of a quality corresponding to that of the chintzes which form our chief article of importation to this country; or silk stuffs for use and exportation, for both of which manufactures the raw material could be procured in abundance, and at cheap rates, upon the spot. Colonies engaged in the above, or other pursuits,

and so constituted, like those of Germans in Odessa, or of Swedes and Norwegians in the United States, as to be enabled to till their own land, make their own roads, and provide in every respect for their own wants, would, in the opinion of many persons qualified to judge, be likely to meet with success. But before such a Colony can be established in this country it will be necessary to overcome many prejudices on the part of its rulers, which at present are so deeply rooted as to render success almost hopeless. From the people, far from meeting with opposition, I believe such Colonies might expect the welcome everywhere bestowed upon those who lower the prices of food, and increase the value of labour.

I will now reply, in as full a manner as circumstances will admit of, to the questions contained in Lord Clarendon's Circular.

1. Where the winter diet of the workman consists almost entirely of bread, rice, and bad cheese, with a small quantity of tea in the form of a decoction, and the summer diet of bread and "sayfi," or summer produce, *i.e.*, melons, cucumbers, vegetable-marrows, egg-plants, and various forms of edible gourds, it would be idle to attempt to compare the purchase-power of the wages with those paid to English workmen. The average wages here are about 9½*d.* a-day, or 21*s.* per month. By confining themselves to the above diet, the workmen in this country can just manage to keep body and soul together. In Persian towns large caravanserais, built in former times to accommodate a far more numerous population, are generally to be found. These buildings, though generally in a more or less ruinous condition, can still furnish shelter for a large number of workmen, who are lodged at the rate of from 1*s.* to 3*s.* a-month. As for furniture, a rough felt for sleeping, and a cooking-pot, which the inmate must provide, suffice for his requirements. The courtyards of mosques, and sheltered corners in various parts of the town, are the refuge of a large number of the still poorer class. Of the workmen who are married, some possess a small piece of land, which helps them to maintain their family; and in some cases the wives and children add a trifle to the family pittance by sewing, or more frequently by carpet-making, or rough weaving. In a country where every one who has the merest pretence of religion must give

alms, not a little is added to the subsistence of the poorer classes from this source. Once a-year, at all events, for a period of three days the poorest man may sit down to a comfortable dinner, which is furnished to him by the devotees of Hassan and Hossein, which is equivalent in Persia to saying by all who can afford it. In short, though the existence of the working classes in Persia is, according to English ideas, miserable in the extreme, still I have no reason to believe that there is anything like the suffering they are exposed to at home. If a man cannot earn his livelihood he begs it, or steals it, as may seen most expedient, without any particular blame attaching to either of those proceedings. Should he be caught stealing, and be brought to punishment—both highly problematical cases, he may lose a hand or a foot; but being in that case disqualified from work, he can beg with the certainty of success.

2. With regard to the power of preserving health, it may briefly be stated that in a climate like Persia, where the air is constantly pure, and the sun almost always bright—where, save in Mazanderan and Ghilan, there are no marshes to produce fevers—where land is so cheap that no one need be exposed to evil emanations, proceeding from accumulated filth or overcrowding, common precautions should be sufficient to avoid illness. Not to be exposed to excessive heat in summer, nor to excessive cold in winter, and to avoid excesses in diet and work, whether mental or physical, are hygienic rules, the violation of which here, as in other countries, is always attended with danger. It need hardly be said that a stranger should modify his diet in accordance with the climate, viz., not live entirely on meat, and the seductive but fiery native wines, nor out of an ill-judged economy rush into the contrary extreme of starving upon the bread and melons which form the chief food of the poorer natives.

Drainage is most imperfect, but ill-closing doors and ill-fitting windows leave nothing to be desired in the way of ventilation. Where dead animals are cast upon the road to be deodorized by the influence of the sun, and the public streets are made the receptacles for everything that is not wanted in the houses, miasmatic emanations should abound. Still the dryness of the air is so great, and the power of the sun so marvellous, that

the most experienced doctors are of opinion that the very slightest attention to sanitary precautions would rid this country of the epidemics from which it suffers. Cholera, the small-pox, and typhus fever are the chief amongst these; but, as a rule, they only make their appearance when everything has been done to give birth to them.

As the longest established European doctor observed to me the other day, "They cannot be attributed to the visitation of God, but to the imbecility of man."

3. In the manufacture of shawls and carpets, in brass-work, in enamel on gold and silver, in every species of ornamental work where a good effect is sought for, rather than excellency of finish, the Persian work may be said to be good. Everything is done by hand, and left unfinished, rather from an ignorance of the higher principles of artistic work than from any real incapacity; save in respect to the shawls and carpets, which combine an artistic sense of the harmony of colours with a wonderful perfection of finish and durability, the above remark may almost always be applied to the work of Persian artizans. The ignorance of the workmen is not altogether the result of their want of opportunities of improvement. The love of tradition is very strong, and the only change to be noted is that which is produced by the gradual deterioration which, by an universal law, comes upon nations which do not progress.

What I have said about the higher branches of work applies equally to the lower. Everything in this country follows a geometrical ratio in its decay.

No artizan takes a pride in excelling in his work. The laziness of the Persian character is so great that the workman can never be brought to do more than what is sufficient to earn the price of his labour. The national vanity, which hitherto has been but little stimulated by a comparison of Persian products with those of foreign countries, has taken the form of rendering each individual satisfied that, had he a motive for exerting himself, he could do better than his neighbour.

There is, however, one numerous and powerful fraternity which is never tired of attempting to surpass. Those who belong to it, and they form in two or three instances the population of entire districts, are ever striving to excel; they devote every leisure moment to

this purpose, and are stimulated to constant endeavours by the fame of those who have attained to eminence in their difficult art. Few Persians of any position but have arrived at a certain skill in this accomplishment, and Prime Ministers, and even Sovereigns, have owed the greater portion of their celebrity to their extraordinary aptitude in this respect.

I refer to penmanship. The Mirzas are indeed the only "class of workmen who take a pride in their work, and endeavour to excel, from the sense of honour they have in executing it."

It is almost unnecessary to remark that to say that the chief artistic talent of Persia is applied to such a purpose, is equivalent to saying that it is directed to the least profitable channel it could possibly pursue.

If the years of constant study and patient application wasted upon this thankless pursuit were bestowed upon any other art, science, or even handicraft, Persia might hold a high rank amongst civilized nations.

I have, &c.

(Signed) GEORGE JENNER.

Tehran, November 2, 1870.

BUSHIRE.

Mr. Alison to Earl Granville.—(*Received March* 6.)

My Lord, *Tehran, January* 31, 1871.

I HAVE the honour to forward herewith a letter from Mr. Jenner, inclosing a Report on the condition of the working classes at Bushire.

I have, &c.
(Signed) C. ALISON.

Inclosure 1.

Mr. Jenner to Mr. Alison.

Sir, *Tehran, January* 30, 1871.

IN continuation of my Supplementary Report on the working classes which you did me the honour to forward to the Foreign Office in your despatch of the 10th of November, I have the honour to inclose a Report on the subject which I have received from the Assistant Resident at Bushire.

I have, &c.
(Signed) G. JENNER.

Inclosure 2.

Major Smith to Mr. Jenner.

Lingah, Persian Gulf,
Sir, *November* 1, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge your letter dated Tehran, 20th August, 1870, and propose replying to your queries seriatim.

1. Carpenters receive 2 krans and 3 meals per day; by the month 7 to 10 dollars, with rations. Head masons, 4 krans and 3 meals per day; by the month 18 dollars, and rations.

Porters earn a day $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ a kran, if they can find employment. Ordinary tradesmen and builders receive $\frac{1}{2}$ a kran per day and 3 meals.

Blacksmiths usually find their own iron, which costs about 1 kran per 14 lbs., and which they sell, according to workmanship, at from 4, 6, 8, to 10 krans per mun of 9 lbs.

Goldsmiths charge for workmanship 2 krans per muskhal.

Large numbers of the labourers, when they cannot get employment ashore, engage on board the larger native craft trading to India; they receive no regular pay, but a certain share on the profits of each voyage.

2. On Fridays no work is ever done, and workmen only receive rations on these days from employers.

There are also ten entire holidays in the year on which neither salary nor rations are drawn.

3. The hours of labour are from about one hour after sunrise to noon, when men break off to rest and dine, for about a couple of hours, when they resume till sunset.

4. It is not easy to determine; all classes of labourers live very much alike, in the most frugal manner, and a man who earns his ½ kran may be taken as an average specimen. His food will be a lump of dates before going to work, some bread (unleavened) and salt fish for dinner, and some boiled rice for supper. The men who earn higher wages possibly wear a better shirt and turban, but nothing more; whatever they save is usually converted into ornaments for their women.

The man on ½ a kran usually lodges on the spot where he finds himself at sunset during the hot season. In the winter these poorer classes live in huts made of date branches.

The better-paid labourers sometimes aspire to a small mud shanty, and keep a few fowls.

The women appeared to contribute very little towards the household expenses.

The prices of the chief articles of food vary with the seasons, but the prices ruling at Lingah now are as follows, taking a "mun" to be 9 lbs.:—

	Kran.
Wheat, ¾ mun	1
Barley, 1½ mun	1
Kurrachee rice, ¾ mun	1
Busreh rice, 1¼ mun	1
Clarified butter, 1 mun	11
Sweet oil, 1 mun	7

	Kran.
Cocoa-nut oil, 1 mun	6½ to 7
Bag of dates, 16 mun	11
Sugar, 1 mun	4¼ to 4½
Coffee, per mun	6
Mutton, first sort, per mun	4
,, second sort, per mun	2
Fish	1
Dried salt fish, per 100	12
Firewood, per 100 mun	5
Tobacco, per mun	4
Bagar bread, 3¾ lbs.	1
Halwa	7

6. For replies to your following queries as to matters of health and sanitation I am indebted to Sub-Assistant Surgeon A. R. Hakin for some remarks he has been good enough to furnish me with, and which I attach in full for your information.

7. In regard to the quality of work turned out here as in other countries, there are certain specialities that cannot be so well imitated elsewhere. But the general work of the carpenters and builders, though very rough, seems to suit the demand, and, until the people learn to wish for something better, it is not likely any great improvement will take place in the quality of workmanship.

8. As to remunerative openings for British workmen, skilled or the reverse, to commence with unskilled Europeans, I do not think that they could at all compete in the market at the rates now ruling for native labour, and in the hot season I much doubt if they could continue work for any length of time without injurious effects to their health.

In regard to skilled workmen, there may eventually be openings for men in the boiler repairing and engineering line, where, as superintendents and foremen, they would perhaps be able to make a fair living, as they would not be likely—for a long time at least—to meet with native competition.

If you had time to apply, I imagine you would glean much very useful information from the Indo-European Telegraph Department, which has had considerable experience in the employ of labourers of all descriptions in building the several telegraph stations along the Persian Gulf, and a fair opinion could no doubt be formed from the replies elicited as to whether immigra-

tion of skilled European workmen would be likely or not to succeed.

I have been so pressed for time that my reply to your letter has been unavoidably delayed, but trust such scraps of information as I send may prove of use to you.

I have, &c.

(Signed) SIDNEY SMITH.

Inclosure 3.

Mr. Hakeem to Major Smith.

Sir, *Bassadore, October* 22, 1870.

In compliance with your desire of the 18th instant, I can provide you with the following general remarks on the questions of diet, preservation of health, &c.

A mixed kind of diet must be considered as about the best on which an individual can thrive in any region. It ought, therefore, to consist of nitrogenous, carboniferous, fatty, and saline principles, which are essential for the due nourishment of the body. Experiments have shown that the proportion of carboniferous, and nitrogenous food, ought to be as three to one. This proportion seems to be the most conducive to health.

It must not be supposed, for a moment, that a certain food, because it contains all the nutrient principles, and those in due proportion, will prove nourishing; but the form and way in which it is dressed has a great influence over its becoming assimilated and proving nutritious. The influence of mind over all the secretions, excretions, and various actions of the body, are universally acknowledged as being great.

Even milk, which contains all the requisite principles of food, cannot be solely depended on; as, in course of time, its exclusive use in one form is apt to give rise to a kind of disgust, which would easily overpower all pangs of hunger, and ultimately cause emaciation. The same effect will be produced by all kinds of food, if they are dressed in the same manner day after day.

With regard to the nature and amount of food, it will depend upon the constitution, habit, and peculiarity of each individual, and upon the seasons of the year. Those persons leading a sedentary life ought to avoid

rich dishes and heavy meals; their food ought to be as plain as possible. The amount of food will also vary with the demand of the system. Persons engaged in active bodily exercise will require larger quantity than those leading a reverse kind of life. During the hot season, when generation of animal heat is not in great demand, fats and other carboniferous food ought to be taken in sparing quantities. But during the cold season, they may be freely indulged in, as demand for animal heat is great. But of course, due regard must be paid to the actual demands of the system, and the quantity of food must be varied and regulated accordingly; as over-feeding induces ultimately plethora, which brings other diseases in its train.

The ordinary articles of food obtainable here are wheat, rice, meat, fish, dates, and "dholl." But the meat is generally of an inferior quality, owing to scanty pasturage. Vegetables are not procurable, excepting during the rainy season, when radishes, carrots, onions, turnips, gourds, and brijals, can be obtained. Fish and dates form the staple articles of food for the native population.

As to the question of beverages, delicate and weakly individuals can take fermented liquors in moderation; as to them they are of great use by improving appetite, and imparting tone and energy to the system, to eliminate the poison of malaria, which is so rife in these regions. The same may be said of persons who have become exhausted after a day's hard work. But it is just to remark that fermented liquors, as beer, porter, or claret, must be preferred to any of the ardent spirits, which have eventually a detrimental effect on the system. But to persons in robust health even these are quite needless; a cup of strong tea or coffee will prove quite as efficient.

With regard to changes of clothing here, as in all tropical climates, the clothes must be made during the hot season of light cotton fabric, loosely fitting; the colour ought to be white, as it absorbs less heat than other colours. During the hot season, when at times dry and hot winds (simoons) prevail, flannel and woollen clothes are preferable to cotton ones, as the former being bad conductors prevent the body from becoming unduly heated by the external hot winds. These kinds of clothes have also the advantage of keeping the skin in a

moist state, by not allowing the perspiration to pass off too rapidly; and thus the skin, under the influence of hot winds, does not shrivel up, and become impaired in its exhaling power. But during the rainy and cold seasons flannel and woollen clothes ought not to be neglected, as exposure to wet and cold is apt to cause congestions of internal organs, as the liver, kidneys, intestines, &c., and give rise to various bilious and propsical affections, and bowel complaints.

The chief points to be attended to in the preservation of health are :—

1. The proper regulation of diet, according to the wants of the system at different seasons, and under the varying circumstances of mental or bodily activity, or the reverse. The diet ought to be sufficiently plain and nutritious.

2. Attention to cleanliness; the body ought to be washed at least once during the twenty-four hours, and frictions be freely used. Cold or warm water may be used, according to the season, and choice of each individual. Cold water should be preferred by the robust. Clothes ought to be clean.

3. Exercise in the open air must not be neglected, especially by those who have sedentary occupations. A brisk walk, extending over two or three miles, will be highly beneficial. But violent bodily exertions and undue engagement or excitement of the mind must be avoided, as they are detrimental to health.

4. Due attention must be paid to the various secretions and excretions, as their getting out of order lays foundation to serious and fatal diseases. Due regulation of the hours of sleep, &c., may be mentioned as also conducing to the preservation of health.

With regard to the question of healthy lodgings, &c., it may be briefly stated, that the scanty population of Bassadore lives in small houses, made of sandstone and mud, and huts made of date leaves. These houses and huts stand at considerable distance from each other. There are always breezes blowing from one direction or the other; those coming from the north-east and north-west, are the most prevalent; the former blowing in the mornings, and the latter in the evenings. At times the north-east or north-west winds keep blowing for days together (varying from three to seven) in a strong gale.

The ground is elevated, and the soil is, in some parts, rocky; in others, calcareous and sandy: so that, as far as drainage and ventilation are concerned, they are in the most satisfactory condition. But to find here a place free from malarious poison is almost an impossibility. The station in itself is free from all sources of the poison; but the north-east wind, which comes across a large swamp, brings with it the miasmatic poison. A narrow strait (Clarence Strait) divides the large Island of Kishm from the Persian mainland; on either side of this strait there is a large swampy tract, with an extensive wilderness of mangrove trees, extending uninterruptedly over several (twelve to fourteen) miles. The leaves, flowers, &c., which fall down in heaps into this swamp, decompose, and prove a fertile source of miasmatic poison. Malaria is very energetic during the winter season, when the plants have shed all their blossom and leaves.

With reference to drainage, ventilation, and cleanliness, the above remarks do not hold good for the port of Lingah. As far as the town itself is concerned, with the exception of a few scattered spots, which may be said to have some pretensions to cleanliness, it is filthy.

The houses are crowded together without any regularity, leaving very narrow, dirty, and sharp winding lanes, most of which allow one man to walk through them. The walls of the surrounding houses closing in these lanes are very high, and give to the houses an appearance of dungeons for prisoners.

These high walls cut off to a great extent the access of fresh air. As there are no arrangements of any kind for the removal of the night-soil, &c., each house, especially those further removed from the sea, has a hollow dug in the privy, in which the dirt collects year after year, and charges the atmosphere with various noxious and poisonous effluvia, which prove a fertile source of the different low forms of fever, outbreaks of cholera, &c. The suburb is, in most parts, pretty clean, and is not so much crowded, and the sources of malarious and other poisons are, comparatively speaking, few.

The dangers attending the action of these miasmatic and poisonous effluvia are, that persons who have resided uninterruptedly for several years in such regions become anæmic and sallow in countenance, weak and emaciated;

they lose all energy, and freshness of mind and intellect, become liable to congestions, and enlargement of the internal organs, especially the liver and spleen, and if not removed in due time to healthier regions, they are apt to succumb to the fatal effects of febrile and other low diseases.

I have, &c.

(Signed) A. R. HAKEEM, L.M.,
Sub-Assistant Surgeon in Medical Charge,
Bassadore.

BAGDAD.

Consul-General Herbert to Earl Granville.—(Received December 3.)

My Lord, *Bagdad, October* 17, 1870.

I HAVE the honour, in replying to the inquiries contained in Foreign Office Circular dated 7th June last and its inclosures, to premise that, in the absence of any official records on the subject, which do not exist in this country, it is impossible to submit information which I can consider valid, but, so far as I can learn from careful inquiry and general estimation, it seems that the artizans and industrial classes bear the proportion of about 60 per cent. to the other clases.

The latter may be said to comprise Government employés, ulemas (*i.e.*, professors of religion and law), land-holders, merchants, petty traders, dependants, and beggars.

The former are armourers, bakers, barbers, blacksmiths, bleachers, boat-builders, boat-trackers, bookbinders, braziers, bricklayers, butchers, carpenters, coppersmiths, dyers, embroiderers, engravers, farriers, goldsmiths, locksmiths, matmakers, muleteers, needlewomen, pipe-makers, porters, potters, shoemakers, spinners, tailors, tanners, tinmen, water-carriers, watchmakers, weavers, &c., and field labourers.

The houses occupied by these vary in accordance with their means; some are comfortable, but all are badly ventilated, and those of the poorer people are very inferior.

All houses are built on the same principle, whether of stone, brick, or mud, according to the different localities and the means of the occupants.

The form of the house is a square or parallelogram, surrounding a court into which the rooms open, and there is seldom any opening to the outside of the building except the entrance door.

The roofs are flat, and on these the occupants sleep in the summer, while they also use them for the purpose

of spreading on them any articles or produce which they desire to dry in the sun.

In the centre of the court-yard is a sunk and covered cesspool, into which the refuse-water and off-scourings of the house are permitted to run through a small hole in the ground, and most houses are provided with a well, from which, however, the people seldom drink.

The houses consist of only one floor, none having an upper story.

As regards the nature of their engagements with their employers, there is no investment of capital in their case, no manufactories. A master artizan works himself with his journeymen and apprentices.

The labour market is well supplied, and artizans are for the most part so comfortably provided that they are indifferent to extra work, and are content with that which they know must come to them. They are unwilling on any occasion to hurry themselves or put themselves out of their way to accommodate a customer.

I am of opinion that there is no opening in this country at present for the introduction of foreign labour, and that English artizans and workmen should not be encouraged to come independently to this country.

But the country offers the most promising openings for capitalists, both agricultural and commercial; and should it be possible to attract to it the attention of such, their service would offer occasions for the employment of Englishmen as superintendents, engineers, overseers, and skilled workmen, and probably, in the course of time, for that of subordinate workmen and labourers.

The purchase power of money as compared with England is very difficult to estimate, but I am of opinion that, in the hands of people foreign to the country, it is not greater than in England, if so great.

I annex a Table showing the average rate of wages, or daily profits, of native workmen, and of food, in local and British currency.

As regards the preservation of health, temperance in food and drink is the first necessity. Bread and meat, fish, vegetables, and fruits of various kinds, according to the season, are abundant, but the two former are very much inferior and less nutritious than those of England; the water is excellent. Coffee as a beverage is much

used, and wine, beer, and spirits are drunk, and are profitable if used with discretion, but any excess in the use of stimulants is most injurious.

The natives of the country of these classes for the most part live on bread, and dates and fruits in their season. Water-melons, which are cultivated in large quantities, form a staple of their food during the summer.

The change of temperature from summer to winter is so great that a total change of clothing is necessary at these seasons.

In the summer the lightest cotton apparel is needed, while in winter, flannels and broadcloth, or other native substitutes, cloth of camel or goats' hair, or wadded garments, are as essential.

In the present state of the country a foreign workman coming here would find difficulty in obtaining lodging unless in a position to hire a house for himself, and this could be done in the principal towns at the rate of from 10*l.* to 30*l.* a-year. Houses are found at lower rates, but they are only habitable by the poorest of people, and are wretched hovels.

The houses are ill-ventilated, drainage is very bad, and miasmatic dirt, overcrowding, and air poisoning is the rule throughout all the towns of Turkish Arabia.

Even in Bagdad, the capital of the province, the state of the streets is disgraceful, and the lanes in the more remote parts of the town are always in a most disgusting state.

Fortunately the climate is very dry and wonderfully healthy, or the filthy condition of the houses and streets of the majority of the towns could not fail to produce a great amount of sickness.

As it happens, the dryness and healthiness of the climate overcome the risks from these causes.

The work executed by almost all traders is very rough and primitive, and artizans do not, as a rule, take a pride in their work in the European sense.

They would, consequently, not make a stand against bad work, to which they are accustomed, and of better than which they do not understand the need, though doubtless those whose work is better than that of others command a certain preference with the richer employers.

The work of carpenters, blacksmiths, and bricklayers is very rough, but answers the wants of the people.

Weavers and spinners in silk and cotton produce very pretty and strong fabric, but the surface and finish are rough, and European-made piece-goods are in great demand.

Many very useful articles are produced in copper and tin, but their finish is bad.

So also with jewellery and goldsmiths' work.

Embroidery in gold and silver is admirably done and is very enduring.

Great quantities of elegantly formed vessels in porous earthenware, which are very useful in a hot climate, are made, but they are very brittle, and again, their finish is very rough. So also with a certain kind of glass bottles.

The state of the field labourers is very wretched; they are almost invariably overwhelmed with debt to the farmers or landowners for advances, and are consequently miserably poor, and indeed but little removed from the condition of serfs.

I have said above this country offers most promising openings for the employment of agricultural and commercial capital, and on this, as forming an opening for English artizans and industrials, and the improvement of the condition of native labourers, I would wish to lay great stress.

The country, soil, and climate are well adapted to the produce of wheat, barley, and all kinds of cereals, cotton, jute, hemp, the sunflower plant, and fibre-producing plants generally, sugar, indigo, and, I imagine, opium.

Large tracts of land, teeming with intrinsic richness, are now lying waste for want of capital, population, and the intelligence to direct the application of both.

Capital in judicious hands would soon bring together much labour.

Under the present law foreigners can hold land in the Ottoman dominions, and should it be possible to direct attention of monied enterprise to this part of them, there can be no doubt that (when rapid and easy communication may be established with west and east, as may be hoped in a few years (should Her Majesty's Government, in concert with that of the Porte, encourage the

scheme of a railway to connect the Mediterranean Sea and Persian Gulf, of which the importance will, I understand, be brought before Parliament at its next Session), large fortunes are to be made here.

Persons or corporate bodies investing money in land would need machinery for irrigation, tillage, for preparation of cotton, fibres, &c., and would necessarily employ Englishmen, and, as their works advanced, the numbers of these would increase.

I annex a statement showing the coins in circulation in Turkish Arabia, and also abstracts in the form prescribed in the Circular under reply.

I have, &c.

(Signed) C. HERBERT.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

RATES of Wages or Daily Profits.

Labour.	Currency.	
	Local.	British.
	Rate per day in Grand Sig. Piastres.	*d.* *d.*
Armourers	10	$22\frac{1}{2}$
Bakers	3 to 5	$6\frac{3}{4}$ to $11\frac{1}{4}$
Barbers	5 $7\frac{1}{2}$	$11\frac{1}{4}$ 17
Blacksmiths	7 8	$15\frac{3}{4}$ 18
	6	$13\frac{1}{2}$
	3 5	$6\frac{3}{4}$ $11\frac{1}{4}$
Bleachers	5	$11\frac{1}{4}$
Boat-builders	10 20	$22\frac{1}{2}$ 45
Boat-trackers	3 4	$6\frac{3}{4}$ 9
Bookbinders	5 10	$11\frac{1}{4}$ $22\frac{1}{2}$
Braziers	5 10	$11\frac{1}{4}$ $22\frac{1}{2}$
Bricklayers—		
1st class	7 8	$15\frac{3}{4}$ 18
2nd „	6	$13\frac{1}{2}$
3rd „	4 5	9 $11\frac{1}{4}$
4th „	2 3	$4\frac{1}{2}$ $6\frac{3}{4}$
Butchers	3 5	$6\frac{3}{4}$ $11\frac{1}{4}$
Carpenters	5 8	$11\frac{1}{4}$ 18
„ apprentices ..	2 3	$4\frac{1}{2}$ $6\frac{3}{4}$
Coppersmiths	5 10	$11\frac{1}{4}$ $22\frac{1}{2}$
Dyers	$2\frac{1}{2}$ $7\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$ 17
Engravers	10 15	$22\frac{1}{2}$ $33\frac{3}{4}$
Embroiderers	10 15	$22\frac{1}{2}$ $33\frac{3}{4}$
Farriers	5 10	$11\frac{1}{4}$ $22\frac{1}{2}$

Labour.	Currency.			
	Local.		British.	
	Rate per day in Grand Sig. Piastres.		*d.*	*d.*
Goldsmiths	5	15	$11\frac{1}{4}$	$33\frac{3}{4}$
Locksmiths	4	10	9	$22\frac{1}{2}$
Matmakers	3	5	$6\frac{3}{4}$	$11\frac{1}{4}$
Muleteers .. each mule	$7\frac{1}{2}$		17	
Needlewomen	5		$11\frac{1}{4}$	
Pipemakers	5	$7\frac{1}{2}$	$11\frac{1}{4}$	17
Porters	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	17
Potters	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{4}$	17
Shoemakers	3	7	$6\frac{3}{4}$	$15\frac{3}{4}$
Spinners	3	4	$6\frac{3}{4}$	9
Tailors	3	8	$6\frac{3}{4}$	18
Tanners	5		$11\frac{1}{4}$	
Tinmen	3	10	$6\frac{3}{4}$	$22\frac{1}{2}$
Water carriers	5		$11\frac{1}{4}$	
Watchmakers	20	30	45	$67\frac{1}{2}$
Weavers	5	10	$11\frac{1}{4}$	$22\frac{1}{2}$
,, (some)	15	20	$33\frac{3}{4}$	45
Field labourers	2	5	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$11\frac{1}{4}$

Provisions.

Articles.	Currency.					
	Local.			British.		
	Rates in Grand Sig. Piastres.				*d.*	*d.*
Mutton (in summer) ..	per oke	3	to 4	per $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.	$6\frac{3}{4}$ to	9
,, (in winter) ..	,,	5	6	,,	$11\frac{1}{4}$	$13\frac{1}{2}$
Beef	,,	3		,,	$6\frac{3}{4}$	
Fowls, small ..	each	1	3	each	$2\frac{1}{4}$	$6\frac{3}{4}$
,, large ..	,,	3	5	,,	$6\frac{3}{4}$	$11\frac{1}{4}$
Ducks	,,	5	6	,,	$11\frac{1}{4}$	$13\frac{1}{2}$
Bread	per oke	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3	per $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.	$3\frac{1}{4}$	$6\frac{3}{4}$
Rice, 1st quality ..	,,	3		,,	$6\frac{3}{4}$	
,, 2nd ,, ..	,,	2		,,	$4\frac{1}{2}$	
Fish, about 4 lbs. ..		3			$6\frac{3}{4}$	
Turnips	per oke	$0\frac{1}{4}$		per $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.	$0\frac{1}{2}$	
Beetroot	,,	$0\frac{1}{2}$		,,	1	
Beans (lubias) ..	,,	1		,,	$2\frac{1}{4}$	
Beans, green (baguilla)	,,	$0\frac{1}{2}$		,,	$1\frac{1}{8}$	
Cabbages	each	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	each	$3\frac{1}{4}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Cauliflowers	,,	2	3	,,	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{3}{4}$
Spinach	per oke	$0\frac{1}{2}$	1	per $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.	$1\frac{1}{8}$	$2\frac{1}{4}$
Bamir	,,	$0\frac{1}{2}$	1	,,	$1\frac{1}{8}$	$2\frac{1}{4}$
Badenjan	,,	$0\frac{1}{2}$	1	,,	$1\frac{1}{8}$	$2\frac{1}{4}$
Cucumbers	,,	$0\frac{1}{2}$	2	,,	$1\frac{1}{8}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Pumpkins	,,	$0\frac{1}{2}$		,,	$1\frac{1}{8}$	

Articles.	Currency.					
	Local.			British.		
	Rates in Grand Sig. Piastres.				s. d.	s. d.
Potatoes	per maund	20	30	per 24 lbs.	3 8	to 5 6
Wheat—this year ..	per wazna	90		per 140 lbs.	16 5	
,, usually about .	,,	40		,,	7 4	
Barley—this year ..	,,	40	45	,,	7 4	8 3
,, usually ..	,,	20		,,	3 8	
Dates, fresh	per oke	$0\frac{3}{4}$		per $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.	0 $1\frac{1}{2}$	
,, preserved ..	,,	$1\frac{1}{2}$		,,	0 $3\frac{1}{4}$	

Coins in Circulation in Turkish Arabia.

Coins.	Turkish Tariff Rates.	Present Authorized Rates.	Value in English Money at the Tariff Rate.*
Gold.	G.S. Piastres.	G.S. Piastres.	£ s. d.
English sovereign ..	*109 19	112 20	1 0 0
Turkish lira	100 0	103 0	0 18 3
Russian imperial ($\frac{1}{2}$) ..	89 10	90 20	0 16 3
French sovereign ..	86 27	88 0	0 15 10
Persian toman	48 20	51 0	0 8 10
Dutch ducat	50 27	53 0	0 9 3
Silver.			
Spanish dollar	23 17	23 10	0 4 $3\frac{1}{2}$
German crown	22 23	22 30	0 4 $1\frac{1}{2}$
Cingo	21 28	21 30	0 3 11
Mejidiyeh	20 0	20 20	0 3 8
Manet	17 17	17 20	0 3 2
Rupee	10 25	10 25	0 1 11
Altelick	6 0	6 0	0 1 1
Persian N. S. kerans ..	4 $17\frac{1}{2}$	4 15	0 0 $9\frac{1}{2}$
Tungeers	3 24	3 25	0 0 8
Fiorin	2 22	2 35	0 0 $5\frac{1}{2}$
Alloyed Currencies.			
Shamee	9 30	10 20	0 1 9
Beshlick	5 0	5 0	0 0 11
Cherkli	2 10	2 10	0 0 5
Camari (or $\frac{1}{2}$ G. S. piastre) .	0 20	0 20	0 0 $1\frac{1}{3}$
Copper.			
10 para piece	0 10	..	0 0 $0\frac{1}{2}$
5 ,, ...	0 5	..	0 0 $0\frac{1}{4}$

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
Labour—	G.S.P.	*d.*	
Average daily profit ..	6½	14½	In the hand of a person foreign to the country this is not greater than in England and probably would prove less.
Provisions—			
Average cost of daily living, per head, of native workmen ..	4	9	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The native labourer lives almost entirely on bread and dates, with fruit in its season; water-melons are a staple of their food in summer. Bread and meat (both much inferior to those of England), fish, vegetables, and fruits, according to season, are plentiful.

Water of the country is excellent.

Coffee is much drunk, also wine, beer, and spirits; these are useful in moderation, but excess in the use of stimulants is most injurious.

Clothing.—In summer the lightest cotton apparel is needed. In winter flannel and broadcloth, or the native substitutes—cloth of camel or goat's hair, or wadded garments, are essential.

Lodging.—Houses built in squares or parallelograms, the rooms looking into a court, no openings to outside except entrance-door, ventilation and draining very bad. Rent of such as might be occupied by an English artizan 10*l.* or 30*l.* a year.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—All work done, of whatever description, is inferior, exhibiting want of care and of any appreciation of the advantage of making articles well. Finish of all kinds of articles produced, even where these are otherwise good and strong, is rough.

TABREEZ.

Consul-General Jones to Earl Granville.—(Received November 14.)

My Lord, *Tabreez, October 15, 1870.*

I BEG leave to forward herewith a Report on the condition of the industrial classes in this Consular district, in accordance with the instructions conveyed in the Foreign Office Circular of the 7th June in the present year.

I have, &c.

(Signed) HENRY L. JONES.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul-General Jones on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Tabreez.

THE population of the City of Tabreez, is estimated by the inhabitants at 220,000, and by European travellers at 175,000.* Allowing 200,000 as a mean, the artizan class and skilled labourers may form about one-twelfth of the entire population. Mussulman bigotry jealously excludes the Christians from engaging in any trade or manufacture which might indirectly cause defilement to a Mussulman purchaser; and the rule followed, is, that any construction or manufacture which requires to be handled or manipulated when in a moist state is only to be undertaken by Mussulmans. This debars the Christians from following the trades of masons, tanners, painters, bakers, butchers, &c. On the other hand, however, they are almost the only goldsmiths, gunsmiths, and carpenters in the town; the labouring classes are nearly all natives of Tabreez, few villagers being found amongst them, except in the capacity of porters or carriers.

The labourers even of the poorest classes generally own the houses in which they reside; building land can

* Of which 600 families are native Christians.

be bought in the quarter where they live for about 50*s.* the 100 yards square, sufficient space for a house and yard, which is built by the owner personally, and may cost him from 8*l.* to 10*l.* sterling. They are built of mud, and the roofs, which are flat, are plastered with the same material; they last a considerable time and seldom require repair. Sometimes, but rarely, a house may be occupied by two families.

Almost every Persian is married before he reaches 20 years, and their houses are so constructed that the women's apartments are separated from the rest; the peculiar character of the Mussulman household renders it impossible to learn accurately the details of their domestic economy; but however penurious at home, all Persians love display abroad, and on the occasion of a marriage or circumcision, will frequently spend lavishly the savings of a lifetime.

Water is scarce is Tabreez, and that used by the poorer classes is full of impurities. The religious law, however, allows all running water to be considered pure which is a span in depth and flows sufficiently rapidly to carry away a handful of straw strewn on the surface.

Apprentices commence to learn their trade at 11 years old, and remain with their masters until they reach man's estate. The usual hours of labour are from sunrise to sunset less the time occupied by prayers and meals, about two hours. Labourers and journeymen are engaged only by the day. In some trades an additional allowance, generally in bread, is given according to the quantity of work executed.

The following is the rate of wages for the chief handicrafts :—

Trade.	Daily Wages.	
	Masters.	Journeymen.
	s. d.	s. d.
Butchers	..	0 4
Bakers	1 0	0 4
Masons	1 8	0 6
Carpenters	2 6	0 6
Blacksmiths	..	0 6
Painters (by job)	..	0 6
Weavers (by the yard)	..	0 1½
Dyers	..	1 0
Tanners	..	0 8
Potters	..	0 6
Coppersmiths (same as blacksmiths) ..	..	..
Silversmiths	..	0 5
Glassworkers	2 0	0 6
Tailors	..	0 5
Shoemakers (per pair of shoes) . ..	..	0 2
Furriers and hatters	..	1 0
Sandlers	..	1 0
Bookbinders	..	1 0

The diet of the labouring classes in Persia is of the simplest description, bread; fruit, and cheese form their usual repast. They strictly follow the ordinances of their religion by abtaining from wine or other intoxicating beverages, forming in this respect a strong control to the upper classes, who are much given to drinking; wine and spirits are cheap and good, the sale and manufacture of which is in the hands of the Armenians.

The climate of Tabreez is dry and healthy, but strangers on arrival are attacked by low fever, caused probably by the change of atmosphere, the town being situated nearly 5,000 feet above the sea level. The summers are intensely hot and the winters are proportionally cold. Altogether there is little disease, considering the filthy habits of the people and the indifference of the authorities to sanitary regulations.

Lodgings are found with difficulty and are generally high-priced. House accommodation for Europeans has lately increased in demand, and rents have nearly doubled during the last five years. Ventilation, drainage, and cleanliness are unknown; but the dry state of the atmosphere renders these sanitary measures less absolutely necessary than in more humid climates. Children seem to suffer from ophthalmia and cutaneous diseases; the

neglect and superstition of the parents and the ignorance of the quacks whom they employ cause a considerable mortality among this portion of the population.

The following are the present prices of provisions at Tabreez; they are above the usual rates on account of the great droughts which caused the crops and pasture to fail over the greater part of Persia during the present summer.

PRICES of Provisions.

	s.	d.
Bread, per batman of 5 lbs.	0	7
Meat, ditto	1	5
Fowls, each	0	4
Eggs, per dozen	0	2½
Flour, per batman	0	9
Rice, ditto	1	4
Tea, per lb.	3	4
Sugar, per batman	5	2
Milk, per quart	0	2
Wine, ditto	0	11
Spirits, ditto	1	2
Candles, per lb.	3	6
Firewood, per load of 600 lbs.	14	0
Water, annually, for one family	12	3

Respecting diet or clothing no rules can be laid down, nor are any extraordinary precautions necessary.

Persians are capable of turning out good and creditable work; but, as a rule, it is slovenly and clumsy. Being paid by the day, they protract their time as long as possible. Their countrymen appear to prefer cheapness to every other quality, and whoever works for lower wages will receive employment in spite of his inferior skill. The untrustworthiness of the Persian character is seen in every class, grade, or calling; and, although the labour is low-priced, bad workmanship and waste of time make it nearly as dear as it is in Europe. The only occasion when they endeavour to display superior skill is when employed by some authority from whom they hope to receive a reward much in excess of the value of their labour. The tools they use are all brought from Russia; they are of a bad and cheap description, and would hardly find purchasers in any other part of the world.

None of the modern fabrics of Persia are at all equal to those produced in former times. The carpets, felts, and silks have very much deteriorated; the handsome enamelled bronzes of Isfahan are no longer to be found.

Notwithstanding the comparative tranquillity which the country has enjoyed since the beginning of the present century the inhabitants are apparently poorer and certainly less skilful than formerly.

The inhabitants of the cities of Persia have always been treated with considerable favour by the Government; they are not subject to the conscription, which falls so heavy on the village communities; and in the matter of taxation they are equally favoured, as the small amount levied on the bazaars is hardly felt by the individual. It is thus apportioned at Tabreez:—

	Tomans.*
Cloth merchants	980
Grocers	385
Hatters and furriers	265
Shoemakers	316
Cornchandlers	700
Fruit sellers	357
Silk weavers	800
Butchers	7,000
Saddlers and leatherdressers	765
Weighmasters	5,000
Baths and caravanserais	5,000
	21,568

The carpenters, masons, and silversmiths are each under their own chief, who is usually in the employment of the Governor and nominated by him; any disputes among the members are submitted to his decision, from which there is no appeal. In general, a Persian prefers to suffer any injustice rather than appeal to the Government tribunals.

It is evident from the foregoing statement that Persia offers no field for European workmen, least of all for English, who are, as a rule, the most indisposed to adapt themselves to the manners and habits of other nations. Some few Germans have, from time to time, endeavoured to exercise their trade at Tabreez; but, notwithstanding their thrifty habits and modest expectations, they seldom succeeded in gaining more than a bare livelihood. The European community is too limited to support them, and the natives prefer to employ their own countrymen, who work much cheaper and yet sufficiently well for their requirement.

* About 8*s.* 4*d.* at the present time.

Summary of Remarks.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

Labour and Provisions.—75*s.* cheaper than in England.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet and Clothing.—No extraordinary precautions required.

Lodgings.—There is no choice in this matter; the new comer will be fortunate in finding any.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The quality of the work is decidedly bad; but, being apparently cheap, the employers are satisfied with it.

(Signed) HENRY L. JONES.

PERU.

Mr. W. S. Jerningham to Earl Granville.—(*Received December* 15.)

My Lord, *Lima, November* 12, 1870.

In the month of July I received a despatch from the late Earl of Clarendon (June 7th), in which some additional information was requested respecting the industrial classes resident in foreign countries; and it gave me to understand that the value of information thus obtained would be much increased if particulars were given generally—

1. In regard to the purchase-power of money in foreign countries as compared with England;

2. In regard to matters connected with the preservation of health; and

3. In regard to the quality of the work executed in the several departments of labour.

In order to obtain correct information on these points, it was necessary to have recourse to some one who, by constant residence in Lima or Callao, and from the nature of his avocations, might be thoroughly acquainted with the situation of the industrial classes here, and could furnish me with a detailed report; and I therefore addressed myself to Mr. John Mathison, Manager of the Lima and Callao Railways, and likewise engaged in business, to have the obligingness to give me his valuable opinions on the subject; and I therefore beg to have the honour to forward to your Lordship copy of a Report which he has sent to me, and which I trust, founded as it must be on his own experience and observation, will present a satisfactory reply as to the various particular points requiring elucidation.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WM. STAFFORD JERNINGHAM.

Inclosure.

Further Report by Mr. Mathison on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Peru.

WITH further reference to this subject, and to the extended inquiries made by the Foreign Office, I think it may fairly be considered that the purchase power of money in Peru is not more than one-half of what it is in England; provisions, lodging, wearing apparel, and indeed, all the necessaries of life are much dearer than at home; washing is also an expensive item, and the high rate of wages is so far modified by the greater cost of living. Much may be done, however, to lessen this disadvantage, by workmen bringing out clothing and other articles from England, in sufficient quantity to serve them during the period of their agreements. These contracts are usually for three or four years, with the condition of free passage to this coast, and passage home again, should they determine to return at the expiration of their term. If a workman brings a good outfit with him, and is provident and temperate in his habits, he can always save money in this country. Assuming that a mechanic receives 4 dollars (12*s.* 2*d.* sterling) per day, his expenses in food, lodging, &c., will be about 60 dollars (9*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*) per month, he can thus lay by at least 40 dollars (6*l.*) per month I am referring here to men who provide themselves with board and lodging. In some instances the agreements made in England with mechanics, include these items, the employers here finding the workman with dwelling and board, and the wages of course are subject to a corresponding reduction.

The largest employers of English workmen in this neighbourhood, are the Pacific Steam Navigation Company; and in regard to their establishment I am enabled to furnish very ample and exact details. They have in their factory in Callao 150 skilled mechanics on an average, who are lodged and provisioned on the premises. The arrangements made for the health and comfort of these men are admirable in every respect. The contracts are usually for three years, in some cases four years, with passage out, and house at the expense of the Company. The rates of wages are as follows:—

	£
Engine fitters	120 per annum.
Pattern makers	120 to 144 „
Plumbers	144 „
Blacksmiths	120 to 144 „
Boilermakers	120 to 144 „
Shipwrights	120 „
Joiners..	120 „
Upholsterers	156 „
Painters	132 „

Assuming 130*l.* per annum as the average pay, I consider that these men may, with prudence and care, save from 80*l.* to 90*l.* a-year, provided they bring out with them a sufficient stock of clothing for the term of their contract.

The Gas and Water Companies of Lima and Callao, which are under English management, adopt to some extent the system of providing their workmen with house accommodation and food; arrangements of this nature are favourable to the men, for the reduction in wages is fully compensated by the advantages of good and healthy lodgings, and the care and supervision exercised as to the diet and living of the workmen.

I have no reason to believe, however, that the power of preserving health in this climate is, under ordinary circumstances, less than it is in England, provided temperance and sobriety are adhered to; but it must be added that, when attention to these is neglected, health and vigour decline more rapidly than at home. The climate of Peru is very benignant, and is favourable to out-door work; but much exposure to the sun is injurious and debilitating. The diet of workmen is about the same as in England, except perhaps, during the summer months, when there is less inclination for animal food. Spirits and stimulants of all kinds are hurtful, in my opinion, and they are not needed, for a mechanic can do as much work here as at home, and can undergo as much exhaustion without serious risk, provided he eats good wholesome food, and abundance of this can always be had in Lima.

Workmen can generally find lodgings near their work, but rent is high: for one room, the monthly hire is not less than 10 dollars (1*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.* sterling). Ventilation and drainage in Lima receive a good deal of attention from the local authorities; and there is no ground of complaint in regard to these matters. I have

not known any instances where danger to health has arisen from overcrowding, or air poisoning.

Many of the mechanics who come out to this country are married men; but they generally leave their families at home during their time of engagement. In some instances men who have fulfilled a first agreement, have come out again, bringing their wives and families with them; but the expenses of housekeeping consume all their earnings, and in a pecuniary point of view this step unfortunately cannot be recommended.

The quality of the work executed by English workmen in this country, is pronounced by those competent to judge, to be equal in every respect to that done at home; the tools in use here are of the most improved description; the climate is better adapted to fine work than that of England; and the men are not exposed to the inclemency of the seasons as at home.

As I have already stated, the English mechanics in this country are men who have, in almost all cases, been brought out under special engagement, they are consequently selected men, and superior workmen of their class; and, with very few exceptions, they conduct themselves respectably, and fulfil their agreements honourably and conscientiously. All the large industrial establishments of this country—railway, steam, gas, water, engineering and foundry companies—owe their origin to foreign enterprise, and depend principally upon English and American workmen; there is no body of skilled mechanics in Peru, and a considerable time must elapse before any class of this kind can be created to come into competition with the workmen from abroad.

I annex herewith a Form which chiefly embodies the substance of the foregoing remarks:—

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

		Currency.	
		Local.	British.
		Dollars.	*s.* *d.*
Labour, skilled	per day	4	12 2
Provisions	,,	1	3 1
Common day labour	,,	1¼	3 9

Purchase Power.

The purchase power of money is about one-half of what it is in England, that is to say, a mechanic having to clothe, lodge, and feed himself would find these aggregate expenses in Peru double what they are at home, but this disadvantage may be, and is, very generally modified by the circumstances mentioned in this Report. It would cost an English workman about 1 dollar a-day for provisions, but the native common labourers would live upon half this sum.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Mechanics require to live as well here as they do at home; the climate is more debilitating than that of England; and good food, and plenty of it, must be taken by those who have to undergo the fatigue of daily work.

Clothing.—During the winter months, say from May to December, the clothing may be similar to that at home; in the other months of the year a lighter attire is used.

Lodging.—Rents are very high; but lodgings for mechanics may be had. In all cases, I think, mechanics are better off in respect to provisions and lodging, when these requirements are undertaken by their employers.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The English and foreign mechanics do nearly the whole of the skilled labour; they have no competition from the native workman worth mentioning. This state of things does give rise occasionally to carelessness and unsteadiness in workmen; but as the men who come out from England are to a great extent "picked" men, the quality of their work is of the first class, and I think quite equal to what is executed at home.

Engineering, plumber, blacksmith, and generally machine work, cannot be had here except through the medium of foreign mechanics; and while this state of things continues, wages will rule high. Men are engaged at home at such rates as will induce them to come out to this country, and work for a certain term of years. Most of them return to England after they have accumulated some savings.

(Signed) JOHN MATHISON.

Lima, November 11, 1870.

PORTUGAL.

Sir C. Murray to Earl Granville.—(*Received January 4, 1871.*)

My Lord, *Lisbon, December* 28, 1870.

In reply to the late Earl of Clarendon's Circular of the 7th June last, I have the honour to inclose herewith to your Lordship a Report drawn up by Mr. Doria upon certain matters connected with the industrial and artizan classes in Portugal.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CH. A. MURRAY.

Inclosure 1.

Further Report by Mr. Doria on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Portugal.

In my Report last year on the industrial classes of this country I stated that there was no demand for foreign labour, although agricultural labourers might in the South of Portugal find employment.

My efforts to obtain from the Portuguese Government information regarding wages, hours of employment, condition of the artizan classes, proved quite unsuccessful. I received no reply to my inquiries on these various points. To the kindness of a French gentleman engaged in manufactures in this city I owe the chief information contained in my former Report, which I received by verbal communication. My application to the Portuguese Government this year has not met with a more satisfactory result. The accompanying translation of a letter from the Director-General of the Consular Department in the Foreign Office, in reply to my communication this year begging for information on the various points, especially set forth in Lord Clarendon's Circular of the 7th June last, declares the perfect inability of the Portuguese Government to furnish any information whatever on the subject in question. Under these

circumstances anything I might add at present would only be a repetition of the information contained in my Report on the subject last year.

(Signed) WM. DORIA.

Lisbon, December 26, 1870.

Inclosure 2.

Senhor Soares to Mr. Doria.

(Translation.)

THERE are no laws in existence in Portugal for regulating or restricting the number of hours during which the operatives, young and old, are employed in the manufactories. No complaints have been raised against this system of perfect liberty accorded to the workman and his employer, to induce the authorities to interfere in these arrangements, and it is looked upon as a proof of the absence of any abuses.

In practice manufactories are regulated on the systems followed in other countries. Manufactories are very limited in Portugal in comparison to the agricultural interests, which explains why interference is less necessary than in other countries in these matters.

The rate of wages is so very varied among the different classes of industry, and even among those of the same class, that no satisfactory reply can be given in this respect without making a long previous inquiry.

For instance, it may be remarked that the workmen employed in the manufactories at Cavilham are paid at a different rate of wages given in other parts of the kingdom.

It is thought that the Government intend making inquiries into the state of the industrial classes, but at present no details can be obtained.

The operatives in Portugal are clever in imitating every sort of work: they are of a docile character, which is shown by the absence, up to the present time, of any associations against their employers so often occurring in other countries.

(Signed) D. G. NOGUEIRA SOARES.

THE AZORES.

Consul Monson to Earl Granville.—(Received November 7.)

My Lord, *St. Michael's, October 15, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith to your Lordship a report upon the condition of the industrial classes in Azores, which I have drawn up in obedience to the instructions contained in Mr. Otway's despatch, Circular, of the 7th of last June.

I am very conscious that this duty has been but unskilfully performed by me; and I must ask your Lordship's indulgence for the manifold imperfections, both in matter and manner, which will be found in the Report which I have compiled. Your Lordship is aware that the islands composing my Consular District are not only widely scattered, but also very ill supplied with facilities of inter-communication. Feeling that personal observation and local inquiries would greatly aid me in the composition of my Report, I was about to proceed to some of the other islands to collect materials upon which to found it, when a sudden and severe attack of illness put an end to the prosecution of my intended voyage, and deprived me of the power of adding to the scanty stock of information which I already possessed.

Although the object of the Foreign Office Circular, as I understand it, namely, the collection of facts the knowledge of which may be useful to intending emigrants, will not be much served by this Report, I yet venture to hope that the peculiar circumstances at present affecting the population of these islands, which are causing all classes of the inhabitants to take part in open discussions as to the expediency of their annexation by Great Britain or by the United States of America, may invest the observations which I have attempted to reduce into form with an interest which the method of their compilation by no means deserves.

I have, &c.

(Signed) EDMUND MONSON.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Monson on the Condition of the Industrial Classes of the Azores.

THE population of the Azores is dense, with a tendency (from causes to be presently mentioned), to increase rapidly; and the condition of the industrial classes is such as is to be expected where the state of things is unaccompanied by any brisk demand for labour.

The habits of the population are frugal and saving, and the mildness of the climate lessens the number of their wants. Their clothing is of the cheapest kind, often among the men of the poorest class consisting only of a shirt and trousers of homespun. They require no fuel except for cooking; their cottages are mere sheds, generally with earthen floors and without glass windows, and their ordinary food consists of Indian corn bread, vegetables, and fish. Before the appearance of the vine disease, wine was extremely cheap and abundant in these islands, and was consumed by all classes; but for many years past water has generally been the only drink of the poor. There is no poor law; but the old and destitute are supported by charity: to a great extent perhaps by the charity of the poor themselves to the very poor. Notwithstanding the general poverty of the population, however, cases of very extreme destitution are probably not common.

Here, as under a similar state of things in other countries, the peasantry as a rule marry early and have large families. Illegitimate children, moreover, are taken charge of and brought up at the expense of the Municipalities; and the discredit attaching to the mothers of such children is not so great as seriously to affect their means of maintaining themselves.

It should be added that in addition to the growth of population from these causes, the labour seeking for employment in the more fertile and prosperous islands of St. Michael's, Terceira, and Fayal, is enhanced by an immigration constantly flowing into them from the poorer islands of St. George, Pico, Graciosa, and St. Mary's.

The overstock of labour in the Azores has been to some extent relieved by emigration, principally to the Brazils, and in a less degree to the United States. This

emigration appears at present to be becoming more active; but it is kept down by a heavy tax on passports, and by the system of conscription for the army, which makes it practically impossible for poor families having sons liable to military service to leave the country.

Emigration has benefited the labouring classes in the Azores, not only by keeping down the supply of labour, but by the additions to the capital available for the employment of the labour actually remaining here constantly being made by successful emigrants, who, having accumulated money abroad, return to settle in their native islands.

The construction of an artificial harbour, commenced some years ago at Ponta Delgada, in the Island of St. Michael's, has also beneficially affected the rate of wages in that island; and, if the works be continued, may probably do so for some years to come.

But notwithstanding any alleviating effects due to these causes, the condition of the labouring population of the Azores is extremely depressed. Even in the island of St. Michael's, where wages are highest, the usual earnings of an agricultural labourer vary between 7*d.* and 10½*d.* per day (160 to 240 reis). Carpenters, masons, and painters earn from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.* day (360 to 480 reis). The domestic servants of the Portuguese families of the middle class, boarded and lodged by their employers, are usually paid, men at the rate of 4*l.* to 5*l.* a-year (1,800 to 2,400 reis per month); and women at the rate of 2*l.* to 4*l.* (960 to 1,800 reis a month). I must admit that foreign residents, and especially the English, cannot obtain satisfactory household servants at such rates.

Wages in the other islands are even lower. I have heard, for instance, that in the island of Graciosa a strong man could earn as a servant only 840 reis (1*l.* 16*s.*) per annum. Domestic servitude is doubtless better remunerated than this in the islands of Fayal and Terceira, which contain important towns; but in the remaining islands I imagine that the rate cited above as existing in Graciosa may be taken as the prevalent one.

Small as they may seem, the rates of agricultural wages here specified are probably 50 per cent. higher than those which prevailed twenty years ago. But as

within the same period a large advance has taken place in the price in these islands of Indian corn and some other articles largely consumed by the labouring class, it may be doubted whether, notwithstanding the rise in wages, the labourer is better off now than formerly.

The superabundance of labour has had an effect on the tenure and cultivation of land in the Azores similar to what has been observed in Ireland and in other countries. Nearly all the arable land is let in very small portions to labourers (or men whose means and habits are very little above those of labourers), who, cultivating the soil in great measure with their own hands, and those of their families, can, and do, pay rents which no farmer with capital could afford to pay for any considerable portion of land. In the island of St. Michael's good arable land is very commonly let at rents equivalent to from 5*l.* to 7*l.* 10*s.* per English acre (10,000 reis to 15,000 reis per alqueire: $2\frac{1}{2}$ alqueires are about 1 acre). The produce of the land, however, though large, must be much less than it might be under a different system, for very little manure is used, and the agricultural tools and implements commonly employed are of the rudest kind, consisting almost entirely of a large hoe, which the peasant uses with great dexterity, and a small rough plough and harrow, drawn by oxen. A few of the large proprietors have made efforts to introduce agricultural improvements and modern inventions, and in perhaps half-a-dozen of the largest farms the threshing and winnowing machines of Messrs. Clayton and Shuttleworth, and other eminent English foundries, may be found in use; but such novelties have not found any very general acceptance. The soil of the islands is volcanic, and rich in decomposed vegetable matter. It is, consequently, very fertile, and the same land will yield, year after, year crops of wheat and Indian corn. In the months of November and December the land is ploughed, and sown with the large blue lupine; this in April and May is eaten down by the cattle, and the stalks and roots hoed into the land to enrich it. This system of culture is asserted to be peculiarly successful, and suitable to the nature of the soil; at any rate it is implicitly believed in, and considered incapable of alteration for the better.

The country population live in villages, scattered all

over the island, an isolated homestead being unknown. They go in gangs very early in the morning to their labour, and return together at night. In summer the peasant works from half-past 5 or 6 A.M. to half-past 7 or 8 P.M., or until dark (in these latitudes the longest day closes at 8 P.M., with a brief twilight); and in winter from daylight to dark, taking half-an-hour at 8 A.M. for his breakfast, and an hour at noon for his dinner. He takes his supper on his return home. The diet of the peasant consists of a light morning meal of Indian corn bread—very substantial and wholesome—made of Indian corn flour, once slightly sifted, leavened with a home-manufactured leaven of fermented Indian corn. With this they generally eat a few little fried fish, cooked yams, pepper-pods, or, in the summer season, cucumbers, water-melons, or other fruit. A species of small fish, resembling sprats, is largely taken off these islands, and is sold very cheaply, at about 2*d.* the 100. The peasant's dinner is merely a repetition of his breakfast, and at night his supper consists of some kind of vegetable soup. Meat is rarely eaten by the poorer classes, except at Christmas-time, when every poor household kills its fatted pig; but the best joints, such as the hams, are almost invariably sold.

The diet of the artizans differs in no appreciable degree from that of the agricultural labourers, and the dwellings of all the labouring classes vary but little from one model. These cottages are built of rough stone and a reddish clay, which becomes very hard with exposure; the roofs being thatched with wheaten straw, or, in the case of more pretentious habitations, covered with tiles, laid loosely over very rough boarding. In front there is generally one room—never more than two—with earthen floors. Glass windows are rare, their place being supplied with wooden shutters. A shed or lean-to at the back is used as a kitchen, and contains a baking-oven, rudely built and lined with the "Pedra queimada," or burnt stone—scoria—of the island. But little attention is paid to cleanliness in the internal arrangements; and the prevalent custom of keeping pigs in close proximity to the dwelling-places, and of emptying into the sty or into the yard around it all sorts of household filth, and the refuse of the kitchen, which is allowed to decompose and form manure, is a sad

obstacle to sanitary well being; while the habit of eating pork fed in this uncleanly manner is, doubtless, productive of many cases of ulcers and skin diseases. Nevertheless, the Azores are singularly healthy islands; epidemics are very rare, and cannot be considered severe whenever they make their appearance; and it is fortunate that such is the case, as in several of the smaller islands, St. Mary's and Graciosa, for instance, neither doctors nor medicines are to be found.

The only numerous class of labourers in these islands, besides those employed in agriculture (including within that term the cultivation and preparation for shipment of the orange crop, an important branch of industry in most of the Azores), is that of the fishermen and boatmen, the latter deriving most of their employment from the shipping. The men engaged in these occupations seem to be less provident and temperate than their countrymen, and are usually very poor, but do not appear to call for any further remark.

The quality of the work executed by artizans in the Azores is generally indifferent; though with reference at least to carpenters and cabinet-makers, perhaps less from want of natural capacity than from want of good tools and of opportunities of learning their trades from good workmen. The smith's work is extremely bad. It cannot be said that any class of artizans take pride in their work, or would feel any objection to hurrying or "scamping" it, if desired by their employers. With reference to the influence of the skill and trustworthiness of the workman upon the rate of wages, it may be stated that it is not the custom for employers to pay the same rate of wages to all the artizans of a particular class whom they may employ, but that each man is paid more or less than his fellows, in proportion to the skill and industry he may be thought to possess.

In illustration of the industrial capacity of the natives of these islands, it may be worth pointing out that they excel in many kinds of fancy basketwork, needlework, and artificial flowers. These manufactures are most active in the Island of Fayal, because there, as at Madeira, the concourse of strangers makes a market for them; but at St. Michael's and other of the islands the production of such articles is only limited by the absence of demand.

From the foregoing brief observations upon the condition of the industrial classes in these islands, it will be very clear that they afford but little temptation to the British working man to emigrate to them. The harbour works in St. Michael's, before alluded to, were originally the subject of an English contract, which expired some years ago, and several English artizans were employed in connection with them. These men were well paid, receiving at least three or four times the amount of wages given to the Portuguese workmen, towards whom they acted as instructors. Since the expiration of the contract these men have, in all but one case, left the island, and their places have been very inefficiently supplied by their pupils. Jealousy of the introduction of foreign labour may have had some share in driving them away; but I really believe that many of them experienced such strong feelings of disgust at the bungling incapacity with which the harbour works were directed under the superintendence of a committee of native amateurs, that not even a rate of wages far more remunerative than any they could hope to obtain at home could reconcile them to the sacrifice of that honest pride which the first-class English operative appears always to feel in the satisfactory progress of any work upon which he may happen to be engaged.

I annex, as directed, a tabulated summary of the substance of this Report:—

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.	
	Local.	British.
Labour—		
Agricultural	160 to 240 reis per diem	7*d.* to 10½*d.*
Artizan	360 to 480 reis ,,	1*s.* 4*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.*
Domestic Servants—		
Men	1$800 to 2$400 reis per mensem	4*l.* to 5*l.* a-year.
Women	960 to 1$800 reis per mensem	2*l.* to 4*l.* a-year.
Provisions—		
Indian-corn bread ..	15 reis per lb.	¾*d.* per lb.
Wheaten ditto ..	40 reis ,,	1¾*d.* ,,
Flour	90 reis ,,	3¾*d.* ,,
Butter	240 to 320 reis per lb.	10½*d.* to 1*s.* 1¾*d* per lb.
Common wine ..	160 reis per litre	7*d.* per litre.
Aguardente (spirits) ..	420 reis ,,	1*s.* 6*d.* per litre.
Rice	60 reis per lb.	2¾*d.* per lb.
Eggs	3 but generally 2 for 20 reis	3 but generally 2 for 9*d.*
Coffee	220 reis per lb.	9½*d.* per lb.
Tea..	1,440 reis ,,	5*s.* 1¾*d.* per lb.
Potatoes	20 reis per kilo.	9*d.* per kilo.
White sugar	160 reis per lb.	7*d.* per lb.
Meat	100 reis ,,	4½*d.* ,,
Cheese	160 reis ,,	7*d.* ,,
Coarse sugar	110 reis ,,	4¾*d.* ,,

Purchase Power.

The food of the industrial classes of all kinds in the Azores is the cheapest and and simplest procurable; and consequently they manage to subsist upon wages upon which an English mechanic or labourer would starve. Either of the latter would require threefold the rate of wages paid to an Azorian to enable him to live in the same comfort which similar occupation in Great Britain would afford him.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The ordinary diet of the English industrial classes would be suitable in the Azores.

Clothing.—Such clothing as is worn in the spring and autumn in England.

Lodging.—In general bad, dirty, ill-drained; cottages crowded together.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The quality of the work is very indifferent, the workmen very incompetent, and decidedly destitute of any pride in their work, and of any sense of honour in executing it.

(Signed) EDMUND MONSON.

St. Michael's, October 15, 1870.

MADEIRA.

Consul Hayward to Earl Granville.—(Received November 14.)

My Lord, *Madeira, October 21, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of a Circular despatch from Mr. Otway, dated the 7th June last, inclosing copies of two Circular despatches which had been addressed by the Earl of Clarendon to Her Majesty's Diplomatic Representatives abroad, for Reports on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries.

In compliance with the request conveyed in that despatch, I now inclose a report for the Island of Madeira.

I have, &c.

(Signed) GEORGE H. HAYWARD.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Hayward respecting the Condition of the Industrial Classes of the Island of Madeira.

ANY Report from Madeira on this subject will, I fear, be practically useless to the British workman, and it can only help to elucidate in a small degree the general cosmopolitan relations of skilled labour all over the world.

The Island of Madeira has a superabundant population, which has long been emigrating to Demerara and other British colonies in the West Indies.

Its population, according to the census taken on the 31st December, 1869, consists of 54,975 males, and 60,829 females; amounting to 115,804 souls in 28,287 habitations.

There were 4,554 births, 2,154 deaths, and 811 marriages at Madeira during the year 1869.

The littoral parts of the island are extremely fertile, but a large portion of the mountainous interior is now

denuded of indigenous trees, is unfit for agricultural purposes, and only produces a partial pasturage for cattle: other mountain tracts of arid land are planted with firs (pinus maritima) to serve as fuel.

The cereal crops produced do not suffice for the island consumption, and resort is had to the import of wheat, flour, Indian corn and rice, and,—as municipal duties are levied on these articles,—bread is dearer than in Great Britain.

Pulse, potatoes, onions, and a great variety of succulent vegetables abound, and some of these articles are exported.

Fruit in great variety (especially bananas) abounds.

Grape vines and sugar canes are largely cultivated, and the wine, spirit, and sugar produced, are both consumed in the island, and also form the chief articles of export.

The supply of oxen, butter, and poultry is ample. Sheep, goats, and pigs are also raised, but animal flesh is not generally consumed by the labourer.

The take of salt-water fish is generally abundant, and, its price being cheap, it forms a large share of the food of the labourer.

A considerable portion of the flax and wool consumed is produced in the island.

Stone for building purposes is good and abundant, timber for the same purposes is generally imported.

Lime stone is supplied from the neighbouring Island of Porto Santo, but no useful minerals have been found in Madeira.

The manufactures of the island consist of wine, spirits, sugar, shoe-leather, basket-work, homespun of flax and wool, hand-made embroidery and lace, straw-plait and cabinet-maker's work; all which articles, excepting embroidery, are made from island produce.

No skilled work done in the island,—excepting the needlework embroidery done by women,—is remarkable for great excellence.

The wages of common day labourers average 1*s.* 3*d.* per day.

Those of artizans and skilled labourers average 2*s.* 6*d.* per day.

There are few skilled mechanics getting higher wages.

The average gain of a needlewoman is estimated at 5*d.* per day.

The hours of labour are from sunrise to sunset, one hour during that time being allowed for breakfast and one hour for dinner.

The native workmen are generally sober, well-conducted, and willing to work when overlooked.

The diet of the labourers of Madeira consists of boiled Indian corn meal, pulse and succulent vegetables, and occasionally rice, all flavoured with a little lard, a little bread, coarse fish, and an occasional use of animal flesh.

Wine or stimulating drinks are only the occasional luxuries of those who can afford them.

The price of beef is from 5*d.* to 6*d.* per pound, and that of soft bread averages 3*d.* per pound.

The clothing of labourers is spare, light, and inexpensive, that of artizans is somewhat better, and clothing does not vary materially with seasons.

The habitations of the labouring classes are small and uncomfortable, and proper cleanliness, ventilation, and drainage are neglected, but the salubrity of the climate lessens the injury to health from those evils.

British workmen could not live in Madeira in the same manner as the natives do, without great risk of injury to their health and power of performing labour; for Madeira is not altogether free from the effects of tropical climates on Europeans, who, if imprudent, are here liable to attacks of diarrhœa or low fever.

The British workman could not at present find lodgings at Madeira suitable to his habits, nor could he maintain himself in health on the current rate of wages.

I am of opinion that there is no scope for the regular employment of skilled British labourers in Madeira, nor does there seem at present any opening for the introduction of new manufactories.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
Labour ..	Wages per month: 7$800 to 15$600	Wages per Month: 1*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* to 3*l.* 5*s*	3*l.* 5*s.* worth in power to about 5*l.* in England.
Provisions ..	Prices: Fresh beef, 100 to 120 reis per lb. Soft bread, 60 reis per lb.	Fresh beef, 5*d.* to 6*d.* per lb. Soft bread, 3*d.* per lb.	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Less animal flesh and stimulating drinks consumed than in England.

Clothing.—Lighter than in England.

Lodgings.—Inferior, but not usually detrimental to health.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—Fairly good.

(Signed) GEORGE H. HAYWARD.

Madeira, October 21, 1870.

OPORTO.

Consul Crawfurd to Earl Granville.—(Received January 28, 1871.)

My Lord, *Oporto, December 31, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith, in compliance with instructions contained in Lord Clarendon's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, a Report upon the circumstances and conditions of the industrial classes in this Consular district.

I have, &c.

(Signed) OSWALD CRAWFURD.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Crawfurd on the Condition of the Industrial Classes of Northern Portugal.

THE comparatively low scale of wages prevailing in Northern Portugal is likely to offer no temptation to British working men to exchange their own higher wages for the smaller emoluments and longer hours of work which are the rule in this part of the country. This circumstance, and the fact that, in previous Reports from this Consulate, I have dwelt at considerable length upon the wages, diet, and mode of living of certain of the industrial classes, induce me to report briefly in regard to the queries propounded in the Circulars of the Secretary of State of the 7th of June last.

The following is a scale of wages at present earned by the different handicraftsmen of this Consular district. A steady rise has taken place in the rate of wages generally for about the last thirty years. This increase may, without exaggeration, be stated at 10 per cent. for each decade of this period, and may be accounted for either by increasing emigration, by increasing prosperity, by an augmented wages fund, caused by the ever-recurring

return to their native country of enriched emigrants from Brazil, by the effect of an increase of the precious metals, or by all these causes combined.

TABLE 1.

Class of Worker.	Wages per Day.			
	Amount in Currency.		Amount in Sterling.*	
Field Labour—	Reis.	Reis.	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
Day labourer (man)	160 to	220	0 8 to	0 11
Ditto (woman)	90	140	0 4½	0 7
Overseer	300	400	1 3	1 8
Overseer and contractor for labour	400	600	1 8	2 6
Stonemasons—				
Foremen	300	340	1 3	1 5
Masons	220	300	0 11	1 3
Boys of from 12 to 16	80	100	0 4	0 5
Carpenters—				
Foremen	300	460	1 3	1 11
Carpenters	240	400	1 0	1 8
Boys from 12 to 16	80	120	0 4	0 6
Bricklayers—				
Foremen	300	560	1 8	2 3
Workmen	240	360	1 0	1 6
Boys	80	120	0 4	0 6
Joiners—				
Foremen	310	560	1 8½	2 4
Workmen	240	460	1 0	1 11
Boys	100	120	0 5	0 6
Blacksmiths—				
Foremen	400	600	1 8	2 6
Workmen	240	460	1 0	1 11
Boys	100	120	0 5	0 6
Coopers†—				
Overseers	400		1 8	
Workmen (ordinary coopers)	240	300	1 0	1 3
Boys	60	100	0 3	0 5
Stavemakers‡ per stave	10		0 0½	
Sawyers§, by the piece.				
Makers of casks,‖ per pipe of 115 galls.	360		1 6	

* At the average exchange of 4$500 per 1*l.*, the conversion of small sums from Portuguese currency to sterling results in inconveniently small fractions; I have therefore calculated the English penny to be equivalent to 20 reis, a common mode of reckoning, and which is, for the purpose of a comparison of wages, sufficiently exact. By so doing, however, the English equivalents are necessarily slightly understated.

† These are workmen employed in the large wine stores at Oporto.

‡ A good workman will earn from 400 to 600 reis a-day.

§ Sawyers can earn from 300 to 400 reis a-day.

‖ A man can make 1 pipe per day.

Class of Worker.	Wages per Day.			
	Amount in Currency.		Amount in Sterling.	
	Reis.	Reis.	s. d.	s. d.
Workmen in the Wine stores*—				
Overseers ("capatazes")	360	400	1 6	1 8
Workmen ("matulas")	240	300	1 0	1 3
Engineers (native)—				
Enginemen and firemen	360	400	1 6	1 8
Hammermen	220	260	0 11	1 1
Labourers	200	240	0 10	1 0
Boys	100	140	0 5	0 7
Factory workers—				
Overseer, general ("mestre de fiação")		1,000		4 2
Overlookers of machinery ("chefes da machina")	400	420	1 8	1 9
Assistant overlookers	260	280	1 1	1 2
Ordinary hands (men)	200	240	0 10	1 0
Ditto (women)	100	140	0 5	0 7
Children under 12	40	90	0 2	0 4½
House-painters—				
Foremen	300	520	1 3	2 2
Workmen	240	400	1 0	1 8
Boys	80	120	0 4	0 6

The above trades embrace the occupations of the great bulk of the industrial classes in this part of the Kingdom. The minor trades, such as tinmen, goldsmiths, workers in zinc, &c., are more frequently paid by piece-work than by time; when the latter is the case their gains bear almost the same ratio to the above trades as in England. Hand-loom weavers, still a numerous class in this country, are either whole or part proprietors of their looms, or else they hire the machine by the month or year. When paid by piece-work their earnings seldom exceed the lowest wages gained by ordinary skilled labour.

The workmen of this country are, as I am informed by those who are in a position to institute the comparison, not, as a rule, equal in technical skill to the workmen of Great Britain; and their inferior physical condition, due, principally, to a lower scale of diet, does not, perhaps, admit of their undergoing so much hard work (in the

* The work consists in racking wines, moving casks, &c. Employment is given, in Oporto, to a great number of men, not only in the port wine stores but in those of the lighter kinds of wine

case of trades requiring great and continuous muscular effort) as Englishmen; but their almost unexceptional sobriety and, perhaps, greater application to work (Portuguese workmen seldom work less than six days of ten hours in the week) is some set-off against this inferiority. On the other hand, though the number of holidays has of late years been greatly reduced, there are still about seventeen in the course of the year upon which no work whatever is done.

The workmen generally are well-mannered, intelligent, and industrious; and their deficiency in technical ability is due to lack of opportunity of improving themselves, and not to want of aptitude or desire to learn, in proof of which it may be mentioned that the small trade of stucco-working was formerly practised exclusively by Italians in Portugal, but was mastered by the Portuguese as soon as it was introduced into the country; and all the work of this kind is now performed with great skill and taste by Portuguese workmen alone.

Diet.

The food of the Portuguese workman is varied and wholesome; but, when compared with the British workman's dietary scale, it is not liberal. Bread, composed of a mixture of maize and rye meal, coarsely ground, is the invariable bread food. Meat and bacon, or lard, are used only in the form of broth, made with the addition of one or more of the following ingredients:—cabbages, rice, haricot beans, gourds, turnips, or onions. This broth (in the case of working men oftener made without meat than with it) is the staple of the dinner of nearly every Portuguese of all classes. Dried and salted codfish, pickled sardines, and dried cuttle-fish are likewise parts of the Portuguese workmen's diet. The common red wine of the country, acid, rough, and astringent in its character, is the only drink. It is, possibly, more wholesome than beer in a hot climate. It hardly exceeds the beer drunk by English workmen in alcoholic strength, and, in nourishing qualities, it is certainly inferior to it. Few working men, except of the better paid classes, use tea or coffee. Gin, made of raw grain of several kinds, or of figs, is used occasionally as a dram, but its abuse is very rare indeed.

The following is the scale of diet, for one week, of a family of farm labourers (a man and his wife and a labourer) near the city of Oporto. The amount and kind of food would probably be the same for a family of artizans containing the same number of members, but the vegetables would, of course, be restricted in quantity. The prices of vegetables in the larger towns are about the same as in provincial towns in England :—

Dried codfish	6 to 7 lbs.
Lard	1 lb.
Olive oil	1½ pint.
Rice	1 lb.
Bacon	¼ lb.
Bread (of rye and maize)	30 to 40 lbs.
Gourds, cabbages, &c.	*ad lib.*

The average prices of the principal articles of food are as follows :—

		s.	*d.*		*s.*	*d.*
Lard	per lb.	0	6	to	0	7
Bacon..	„	0	5		0	7
Rice (low quality)	„	0	2		0	4
Codfish	„	0	4			
Pickled sardines (a large kind) ..	per 100	0	6		0	10
Fresh sardines (ditto)	per doz.	0	1		0	2
Wine, common..	per pint	0	1½		0	6
Beef, ordinary	per lb.	0	5		0	7
Olive oil	per pint	0	4		0	6
Broa (maize and rye bread) ..	per 33 lbs.	2	0		2	6

Tea, sugar, coffee, and all such foreign produce, are higher in price than in England, being more highly taxed.

Wheat bread is rarely used in the houses of the working classes. The maize and rye loaf is heavy and close, but not unpalatable. Its weight, from the fact of the dough being unfermented, and the bread, consequently, not at all aërated, is so great, in proportion to bulk, that the price per pound gives no idea of its price when compared with that of ordinary bread.

The use of a double bread food is probably some safeguard against famine, or, at least, against scarcity; for the two corns used do not differ greatly in price in average years, and the weather that would imperil the harvest of the one grain would probably increase the produce of the other. The loaf would, in the event of the scarcity of either grain be made up to its usual proportions from the other with no great difference in its

taste or appearance; and the sudden change from one bread food to another during a scarcity—in most countries a hardship and a difficulty—is, in Portugal, an almost imperceptible transition. The contingency of a failure both of the rye and maize harvest is remote and improbable.

The lodging of artisans presents no remarkable feature, except that it is the habit of the great majority of the handicraftsmen, in the larger cities, to lodge for five days in the town and to pass Saturday and Sunday nights with their friends or families at a distance of from two to eight miles in the country; and, though their lodgings in the towns are bad and small, their migration to country quarters for two days in the week is probably not to the disadvantage either of the health or morals of the working classes.

(Signed) OSWALD CRAWFURD.

Oporto, December 31, 1870.

PRUSSIA and NORTH GERMAN CONFEDERATION.

Lord A. Loftus to Earl Granville.—(Received January 16.)

My Lord, *Berlin, January 14, 1871.*

I HAVE the honour to inclose to your Lordship herewith a supplementary Report, drawn up by Mr. Petre, on the industrial classes in Prussia, in conformity with the instructions of the Earl of Clarendon's despatch of June 7 of last year.

Mr. Petre has shown great zeal and assiduity in the performance of this duty, and his able and interesting Report will, I have no doubt, elicit your Lordship's approval.

I have, &c.
(Signed) AUGUSTUS LOFTUS.

Inclosure.

Further Report by Mr. Petre on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Prussia.

IT is pointed out in the Earl of Clarendon's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last that the value of the information conveyed by the Reports from Her Majesty's Diplomatic and Consular Agents abroad, respecting the condition of the working classes in foreign countries, would be much increased if further particulars were given.

First. In regard to the purchase power of money in foreign countries, as compared with England.

Secondly. In regard to matters connected with the preservation of health, as being of primary importance to a British artizan desirous of emigrating; and,

Thirdly. In respect to quality of work, and to its influence on the rates of wages. Further information is also desired as to wages and hours of labour in manufactories, especially in cotton manufactories.

In my Report of last year I endeavoured, as far as

was possible, and as minutely as the time and matter at my disposal admitted of, to describe the social and material condition of the industrial classes in Prussia. A reference to that Report, a perusal of which is almost essential to a proper understanding of the supplementary information which I am now called upon to furnish, will show how far the object I had in view was successfully carried out; but in the preparation of it I became aware of the extreme difficulty of obtaining, except in a fragmentary way, the materials and trustworthy statistical data necessary for the purpose. Although conscious, therefore, of the difficulty of answering more fully than I have already done many of the inquiries contained in Lord Clarendon's Circular, I shall endeavour nevertheless to supplement, where it is possible, the information given in my former report. I must add that on the present, as on former occasions, I am indebted to Geheimer Ober Regierungs-Rath Dr. Engel, the able Director of the Statistical Bureau at Berlin, for his obliging courtesy in furnishing me with statistical materials and information.

That the importance of all questions relating to the social and economic condition of the working classes has not been overlooked in Germany, and especially in Prussia, is apparent from the number of publications treating of this subject which have appeared under various forms, more particularly within the last ten years, endeavouring to solve the social problems which we are now called upon to face, and which arise out of the wants and demands of labour, and suggesting remedies for the cure of those undeniable evils which too often culminate in the condition of the labouring classes.

Although public attention of late years has thus been directed to the subject, and the necessity has been frequently pointed out, both in German Congresses of Political Economists and in the International Statistical Congresses, of collecting in a statistical form all facts relating to the cost of labour and subsistence, and bearing upon the general economic and social condition of the working classes, up to the present time no such comprehensive statistical information has been collected or published in this country. Such information as there is is limited for the most part to statistical notices scattered through official and private works, in which the inquiries

to which I am called upon to reply are only partially answered, or else the information which they afford is not of a recent date and not altogether trustworthy. My Report of last year contained, I think, as far as I was able to give it, the substance of the information supplied by the publications to which I have referred, relating to the numerical distribution and classification of the working and artizan classes in the Prussian Monarchy and in its separate provinces—to the rates of wages earned by them, their income and expenditure, their lodgings, schools, and societies. Although necessarily incomplete, the accuracy of the information may be relied upon, as I derived the materials from the Statistical Bureau and from official returns which the provincial authorities were instructed to draw up in 1861, embracing the whole kingdom.

The work published by Geheimer Regierungs-Rath Jacobi, of Liegnitz, on the rates of wages in Lower Silesia, from which some materials in my former Report were also derived, is considered as one of the most valuable of the statistical publications treating of the condition of the working classes in one of the chief industrial districts in Prussia; and it supplies me with the additional information desired by Her Majesty's Government relating to manufacturing industry.

The author, whose reputation as a statistician, and whose intimate acquaintance with all that relates to Prussian industry, are guarantees for the trustworthiness of his returns and of the conclusions which he draws from them, gives in his work a general sketch of the material condition and of the rates of wages of the working population in the principal seats of industry situated in the district of Liegnitz during the years 1867 and 1868, and his description is not altogether an unfavourable one. The wages of factory operatives formed the principal subject of his inquiries, but these included also other branches of labour, both agricultural and artizan, for purposes of comparison. In describing the picture drawn by Herr Jacobi as not an unfavourable one, I am supported by the general conclusions at which the author himself arrived. In speaking of the average condition of the working classes in Lower Silesia at that time, he says that they earned "a competency;" that is to say, that they were generally in a position to satisfy the modest

requirements of their mode of living. As corroborative of this he cites the universal complaint throughout the industrial districts of the deficiency of the labour supply, and also the steady rise in the rates of wages. This he attributes to the strides which both agriculture and manufactures have made within the last ten years in Lower Silesia, and to the changes which the law of free settlement ("Freizugigkeit"), and the increased facilities of locomotion have effected in the distribution of labour. In some districts of the circle of Hirschberg wages had risen 50 per cent. in five years. The erection of a manufactory in what was once a purely agricultural district, situated in the circle of Luben (Silesia), at once caused a rise in labourers' ("Tagelöhner") wages, which were only 6d. a day for men and 3d. for women, of 100 per cent. for the latter and 50 per cent. for the former. In general the older workmen in these Silesian districts admit that wages in their youth were scarcely half of what they are now.

Herr Jacobi quotes in confirmation of his statements the following extract from an official Memorandum on the subject:—

"Taken all in all, the position of the manufacturing industry in the Government district ("Regierungsbezirk") of Liegnitz may be pronounced as favourable; and, as owing to railways and other undertakings, a great demand has arisen for able-bodied workmen, the condition of labour in general may also be considered as satisfactory, even without reference for the purpose of comparison to the distressed condition of the Silesian weavers and spinners ten years ago.

The demand for workmen greatly exceeds in most districts the supply, and, as a consequence, wages have risen considerably, and have generally reached a level which insures to the frugal workman, not merely a sufficient competency, but enables him by a skilful and diligent application of his powers to put by money. In many places the scarcity of workmen has become a real obstacle to the further development of industry.

Another competent authority quoted by Jacobi, writing on the situation of the working classes in the level districts of Lower Silesia (Government district of Bunzlau) says:—

"The condition of the artizan population is, on the

whole, a satisfactory one. Journeymen and factory operatives can earn competent wages without their strength being overtaxed by the hours of labour. The workmen employed in the industrial establishments situated in the plains are in peculiarly favourable circumstances. A great many of them are settled on little properties of their own, and nearly all employ themselves out of working hours in cultivating the ground, and raise the greater part of the vegetables and potatoes for their own consumption. The working population is more and more disposed towards frugal household management, in order by careful economy to save money, without at the same time stinting themselves in respect to their bodily wants. One obvious consequence of this is that, owing to the moderation and sobriety of their mode of living, the workmen enjoy bodily health, at the same time that their moral condition is raised. The demand for instruction and efforts to improve themselves intellectuallly are visibly on the increase amongst the working classes, and it must be admitted that the spirit of the times, in the potent strides which it is making, has worked a favourable change in this portion of the population."

It must be borne in mind that the rose-coloured description contained in the above quotation refers only to a particular district in Silesia, to which, no doubt, owing to exceptional circumstances, it is fairly applicable. As a general description of artizan life in Prussia it would, to use the mildest term, be Utopian.

Turning from the general conclusions deduced by Herr Jacobi in his work on Silesian industry to the concrete results of his investigations, it is clear, of course, that in remote rural districts where, under circumstances which seldom vary from year to year, the supply of labour and the demand are evenly balanced, wages must always be lower than in large towns and manufacturing districts where multifarious demands for labour rapidly spring up, but where, on the other hand, living is comparatively dear, and in estimating the average ordinary rates of wages it is not necessary to take into account the variations caused by sudden and exceptional demands for labour.

The following rates of wages prevailed in 1867-68 throughout the Silesian districts to which Herr Jacobi's

inquiries were directed. The maximum and minimum rates represent for the most part the difference between towns and rural districts, between dear and cheap neighbourhoods.

1. The ordinary daily wages of the common manual labourer ("Handarbeiter"), taking the average of summer and winter, are for men from 7 to 10 silbergroschen (8½*d.* to 1*s.*), and for women from 3½ to 6 silbergroschen (4¼*d.* to 7¼*d.*), with a tendency rather towards the higher than the lower rates. On the short winter days (for about eight hours' work) the male labourer must be satisfied with earning 6*d.* to 7¼*d.*, and the female 4¼*d.* a day; whereas in summer, working from 12 to 13 hours, the former can earn 9½*d.* to 1*s.* 2½*d.*, and the latter upwards of 7¼*d.* For instance a "Handlangerinn," a hod-woman (women are employed in Germany, as in many other Continental countries, in coarse manual labour), in the building trade earns from 8½*d.* to 9½*d.* a day. Labourers employed in the Royal Forests receive, on an average, the men 1*s.*, and the women 6*d.* to 7¼*d.* a day.

2. These wages are higher in the larger towns and in their neighbourhood, and whenever the work to be done requires a greater degree of physical strength or skill. Whenever an exceptional demand for labour arises, as, for instance, when a railway is to be made, wages rise higher still; in such cases the ordinary labourer, for example, receives in summer from 1*s.* 2½*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*, and women from 8½*d.* to 1*s.* 1¼*d.* a day. In large towns the ordinary "hodwoman" earns from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 1¼*d.* a day.

3. Piece or contract work enables the labourer, almost universally, to increase his ordinary earning by a third, half, or even more. He can count in this way, in proportion to the physicial strength which he possesses, on earning (in summer) from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* a day, and on railway works still more.

4. On the other hand, when work is scarce wages fall sometimes below the averages above stated, but in summer they rarely fall below 8½*d.* for an able-bodied man, and 4¾*d.* a day for women, except on the Bohemian frontier, where the importation of Bohemian workmen has a depressing influence on the rates of wages.

5. It is not uncommon to pay labour by the hour, in which case the rates range from $\frac{3}{4}d.$ to $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ for men, and from $\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $1d.$ for women. An active field labourer in the mountain districts receives $1\frac{1}{4}d.$ an hour.

6. Children, even those who are still under the obligation to attend school, find employment out of school hours in light field labour, such as weeding, hoeing, and picking, and can earn in winter about $2\frac{1}{2}d.$, and in summer $3d.$ to $3\frac{1}{2}.$ a day.

7. Whenever the character of the work rises above mere coarse manual labour, and approximates more to that of the skilled labour of the artizan or manufacturer, the rates of wages rise to above $2s.$ $6d.$ a day. Miners employed on tunnel work are paid up to $3s.$ a day, and in the Circle of Görlitz a brickmaker and his wife can earn during the summer $3s.$ $9d.$ a day, and in the Circle of Janer from $1l.$ $4s.$ to $1l.$ $10s.$ a week.

8. For work coming within the category of skilled or art-industry, and for work requiring more than common technical skill, wages rise to a progressively high standard, enabling the artizan to earn from $75l.$ to $90l.$ a year and upwards. The wages of modellers and enamellers in iron founderies, of smiths and carpenters in machine works, and pianoforte manufactories, are from $3s.$ to $4s.$ $6d.$ a day. Glass-workers, silversmiths, &c., earn about the same. The highest regular weekly wages paid to a first class workman in a pianoforte manufactory are $2l.$ $14s.$ a week, and in some cases even more.

9. The wages of female labour vary little from the rates stated above, even in factories. An industrious and handy female factory operative can earn, without difficulty, $9d.$ a-day; she may earn $1s.$ when trade is brisk, but seldom more, unless under very favourable circumstances. Women employed in silver-plating works are an exception; their weekly wages average from $12s.$ to $15s.$

10. Boys and girls employed in manufactories begin by earning $2s.$ a-week, and upwards, for ten hours' work a-day; their wages rising in proportion to their industry and skill, to from $3s.$ to $6s.$ a-week. The Prussian laws do not allow children to work in factories until after they have completed their 12th year, and only for six hours a-day, until they have completed their 14th year;

and for ten hours until they have completed their 16th year.

11. To sum up the general average of wages: the daily earnings of a man in permanent employment at ordinary labour are 9½*d.* a-day in the rural districts, and 1*s.* a-day in towns; and for heavy work, 15*d.* in the country, and 18*d.* in towns; and for skilled labour, from 15*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.*

12. The wages of overseers, foremen, &c., are not comprised in the above calculation. The lowest wages paid to these are 36*l.* a-year, rising to double that sum, according to the difficulty of the duties which they have to perform, and to their degree of knowledge and skill.

The hours of labour in the manufactories of Lower Silesia, exclusive of the time allowed for breakfast, dinner, and the afternoon meal, average from eleven to twelve hours a-day, being about an hour longer in summer than in winter. When the manufactories are working night and day, the daywork is about twelve hours, from 6 A.M. to 12, and from 1 P.M. to 7; and the nightwork from 7 P.M., with a quarter of an hour's break, to 6 A.M. In some few instances, but rarely, the working hours are as low as ten, but they are more frequently in excess of what is above stated. In many of the cloth manufactories none of the workmen and workwomen are employed during less than from twelve to thirteen, and some for sixteen hours a-day. The following were the hours of labour in a cloth manufactory, cited by Jacobi, exclusive of the time allowed for breakfast, dinner, and the afternoon repast:—

(*a.*) Firemen and engineers .. .. 16 hours.
(*b.*) Spinners and dyers .. .. 14 „
(*c.*) All other hands .. .. 12 „

In one wool-spinning manufactory, also mentioned in Jacobi's publication, where the machinery was kept going night and day, the women worked in relays for sixteen hours consecutively, viz., from 6 A.M. to 10 P.M., from 10 P.M. to 2 P.M. the next day; and from 2 P.M. to 6 the next morning.

In one of the spinning factories belonging to the "Seehandlung," which is a State banking and trading establishment, with its seat at Berlin, the ordinary hours of labour were from 5 A.M. to 7 P.M., allowing half-an-hour for breakfast, and the same for dinner. In glass

works, the peculiar process of manufacture necessitates continuous labour of more than ordinary duration, but it admits also of a longer period of rest. The glass-melters have to work from sixteen to eighteen hours, and rest for the thirteen to fifteen hours during which the glass-blowers are at work.

It detracts somewhat from the utility of Herr Jacobi's other valuable work, that the hours of labour are not always given by him; and yet, without this information, it is impossible to estimate the real rates of wages with accuracy; but such as are given suffice to show the physical strain which those employed in factory labour in Lower Silesia have to undergo. The Silesian manufacturers, in defending themselves from the charge of overtaxing and gradually exhausting the physical energies of their workpeople, urge that the workpeople themselves, when they do piecework, extend their working hours to the utmost possible limits; and that in other branches of industry amongst artizans of all classes, and amongst those employed in agricultural labour, the same system of overwork prevails.

Throughout nearly the whole of Prussia, artizans, journeymen and apprentices, work regularly in summer from 5 A.M. to 12, and from 1 P.M. to 7, and even later; and in winter, from daybreak, sometimes from 6 A.M. to 8 or 9 in the evening. The hand-loom weaver frequently sits at his loom, employed in monotonous labour, for sixteen hours in the day; and agricultural labourers have to work hard for twelve hours a-day out of harvest time, and during harvest time for fourteen hours. The same rule applies to farm servants.

The extreme length of the hours of daily labour is, indeed, one of the dark features of the condition of the working classes in Prussia, and generally throughout Germany. Nightwork is especially injurious to young persons of both sexes, and indeed to females of all ages; and its suppression by law would produce the same beneficial effects which are due to the operation of the Factory Act in England in raising the standard of health and morals. Speaking of legislation, it is fair to state, as regards Prussia, that the provisions regulating the education and hours of labour of children and young persons employed in mills and factories throughout North Germany, which are contained in the North German

Industrial Code ("Gewerbe Ordnung") of 1869, (a textual translation of which was appended to my Report of last year), are modelled upon Prussian laws, enacted in 1839 and 1853-54. Another important measure was passed last year by the North German Parliament, benefiting the condition of the working classes in another direction. I allude to the Act of 21st June, 1869, relating to the attachment of wages and salaries for debt, of which a translation will be found in Appendix No. I to this Report.

To return to the subject of Silesian industry, Appendix No. II contains a Tabular Statement, showing the ordinary rates of wages throughout the Government district of Liegnitz (the result of inquiries instituted by Jacobi in 1867-68), of men, women, and young persons employed in manufactories, of miners, and of journeymen artizans, arranged according to the locality in which the various branches of industry are situated. This Return gives, in separate columns, the wages, whether by the hour, the week, or the year, earned by men, women, and boys, and girls, with a specification under the head of "observations" of the hours of labour, the nature of the work, and whether any payments in kind are included, such as board, lodging, firing, &c.

These estimates of the maximum and minimum of the yearly average of wages are based upon the assumption, of course, that no serious stagnation of trade occurs to disturb them. The earnings of those who work by contract are naturally the most uncertain and fluctuating. In many branches of manufacture the workmen have to provide their tools and even the lighting, but the Returns do not specify this in all cases where it occurs.

A detailed analysis of the Returns furnished by Jacobi of the wages of the lower class of agricultural labourers, of servants, of artisans, and of journeymen in Lower Silesia would occupy more time and space than I can devote to it, but as regards the latter and most numerous class, journeymen artizans, I may say a few words.

The journeyman artizan receives, besides his board and lodging, wages ranging, in the rural districts, from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* a week; in the small and middle-sized towns from 2*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*, and rarely 4*s.* 6*d.*; in the larger towns to 2*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d.*, rarely 6*s.*, and without

board and lodging from 6*s.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* or 12*s.* All these rates vary according to the trade of the journeyman, and the more or less degree of labour or skill which it requires.

Masons or builders ("Bauhandwerker") receive 9*s.*, 12*s.*, and 15*s.*, and apprentices to masons and carpenters 4*s.* 6*d.* a-week. Journeyman watchmakers can earn as much as 15*s.* a-week, besides board and lodging; journeymen coppersmiths, in summer 12*s.*, and in winter 6*s.* a-week. These, which are considered comparatively high wages, are earned by piece work.

Smart journeymen acting as overseers or foremen can earn, besides their board and lodging, from 12*s.* to 15*s.* a-week, and polishers up to 18*s.* Journeymen weavers and shoemakers are put down as the worst paid of all, some of them receiving as little as 4*s.* a-week without board and lodging, and next to these came the journeymen tailors. Butchers' men, even in towns, are sometimes paid as low as 1*s.* 6*d.* a-week, with board and lodging, but they receive extra money for country work and for purchasing cattle, amounting, according to circumstances, to 3*s.* a-week at the most. The maximum equivalent for board and lodging in the towns is estimated at 4*s.* 6*d.* a-week. The wages of barbers' assistants, even in the larger towns, are as low sometimes as 9*d.* a-week, in addition to board and lodging, but they generally earn money for themselves in other ways, with the tacit consent of their employers.

In respect to the earnings of high labour, requiring intelligence and education in aid of manual skill, I may single out for special mention the wages paid in the printing trade at Liegnitz. Compositors receive 15*s.* a-week, working eleven hours a-day, and 3*d.* an hour for overwork. Those who are paid to the quantity of according work delivered earn on the average 18*s.* a-week by working about twelve hours a-day. The men employed at the presses, with the exception of the machine-master, who has 18*s.* a-week for eleven hours work a-day, and 3½*d.* an hour overwork, receive less than the above; they have to work thirteen hours a-day, and they earn on the average only 9*s.* to 9*s.* 6*d.* a-week, and girls employed in folding 5*s.* 3*d.* It must be added, however, that those who are employed at the presses are not constantly at work the whole day. The work is frequently interrupted

for hours, during which time the men can rest themselves, and the women employ their time profitably in sewing.

Herr Jacobi's work contains also the following detailed information with respect to the rates of wages in the town of Görlitz in various branches of manufacture, drawn from authentic Returns made in 1868.

(A.)—*Cloth Manufactories.*

No.	Class of Operatives.	Weekly Wages in British Currency.		Observations.
		Men.	Women.	
		s. d.	*s. d.*	
1	Wool sorters	..	4 0	The hours of labour, except for Class 1 and 2, are always 13 hours a-day; for Class 1 and 2, 11 hours only.
2	Pickers	..	4 0	
3	Beaters	9 0	..	
4	Carders	9 0	6 0	
5	Spinners	12 0 to 15 0	..	
6	Weavers	..	7 6 to 10 6	
7	Fullers—			
	Overseer	24 0	..	
	Journeymen	12 0	..	
	Assistants	9 0	..	
8	Nappers	7 6	..	
9	Shearers	7 6	..	Boys get 5*s.*6*d.* a-week.
10	Pressers—			
	Overseer	15 0	..	
	Journeymen	12 0	..	
	Assistants	9 9	..	
11	Dampers—			
	First hand	10 6	..	
	Second ditto	6 0	..	
12	Tenterers	1¼*d.* an hour	..	
13	Hotpressers—			
	First hand	10 6	..	
	Second ditto	7 6	..	
14	Brushers—			
	First hand	9 0	..	
	Second ditto	7 0	..	
15	Shearing overseer ..	15 0	..	
16	Card-sorter	9 0	..	
17	Firemen, first	15 0	..	
18	,, second ..	12 0	..	
19	,, stoker ..	11 0	..	

(B.)—"*Orleans*" *Manufactories.*

No.	Class of Operatives.	Weekly Wages in British Currency.						Observations.
		Men.		Women.		Girls.		
		s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	
1	Enginemen	11	0	..		..		Hours of labour, 68 per week, on the average 11½ hours a-day.
2	Stokers	8	0	..		..		
3	Locksmiths	13	0	..		..		
4	Carpenters	11	6	..		..		
		to 12	6					
5	Singeing-men	8	0*	..		..		* In summer, 6*d.* added for beer money.
6	Madder machine-workers..	10	6	..		..		
7	First dyer's assistant ..	13	6	..		..		
8	Dyeing and dressing—Workmen	8	0	..		..		
9	Weaving overseer ..	15	0	..		..		
		& 24	0					
10	Warpers (piecers) ..	..		..		6	0	
11	Card-beaters ("karten-schlagerin")	..		..		7	0	
12	Pressers	10	0	..		..		
13	Female assistants ditto ..	..		..		6	0	
14	Measurers	10	6	..		..		
15	Packers	..		..		4	9	
						to 6	0	
16	Bale packers	8	3	..		..		
17	Shearers (warpers?) ..	9	0	..		..		
18	Yarn distributor ..	..		4	6	..		
19	Weavers (piece work) ..	..		4	0	..		
				6	0			
				10	0			
20	Warp beam cleaners, &c...	12	0	..		..		
		to 18	0					
21	Spoolers, &c.	..		4	0	..		
				to 4	6			
22	Assistant warp beam cleaners	..		6	0	..		
				to 7	6			

(C.)—*Machine Manufactories.*

Iron Foundries and Machine Works.

No.	Class of Operatives.	Weekly Wages of Men in British Currency.	Observations.
		£ £	
1	Masters	45 to 60	Annual salary.
	Master founders	105 120	Ditto.
2	Journeymen—	*s.* *s.* *d.*	
	a. Moulders	15 to 18 0	The best and most industrious hands get 24*s.*, 30*s.*, and even 36*s.*
	b. Smelters, core-makers, &c.	9 12 0	
	c. Engine-makers, turners, borers, screw-cutters, boiler-smiths, carpenters	9 15 0	By piece-work, on the average half as much again.
	d. Smiths	12 18 0	
	Strikers	9 10 6	
3	Apprentices for the first year..	2 3 0	A weekly addition of from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* is made annually according to merit, so that a clever apprentice, at the expiration of his term, is earning from 6*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* a-week.
4	Ordinary workmen	9 0	
	Firemen	10 6	

(D.)—*Railway Carriage Works.*

No.	Class of Operatives.	Daily Wages of Men..						Observations.
		s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	
1	Smiths	1	7¼	2	4¾	3	0	Hours of labour, from 5 A.M. to 7 P.M., including ½ hour for breakfast and 1 hour for dinner, but no afternoon meal.
	Ditto	1	9	3	0	4	6	
2	Locksmiths	1	6	2	6	4	0	
3	Turners	1	9	2	6	4	6	
4	Iron-planers, borers, and screw-cutters	1	3	2	6			
5	Platers	1	9	2	6	4	6	
6	Iron-grinders	1	9	2	6			
7	Iron-cutters			2	0	3	0	
8	Joiners	1	7¼	2	6	4	0	
9	Wheelwrights	1	9	2	6	3	0	
10	Carpenters	1	9	2	9			
11	Painters, varnishers ..	1	7½	2	9			
12	Common painters ..	1	2½	2	6			
13	Saddlers and strapmakers ..	1	6	2	6			
14	Cutters	1	6					
15	Sawmillers	1	6	2	6			
16	Labourers	1	4¾					

(E.)—*Stick Manufactories.*

No.	Class of Operatives.	Weekly Wages in British Currency.										Observations.
		Men.						Young Persons.				
		s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	
1	Turners ..	9	0	12	9	16	6	1	6	3	3	5	Hours of labour, invariably 12 hours per day.
2	Engravers ..	9	0	12	0	15	0	1	6	3	3	5	
3	Carpenters..			12	0					..			
4	Labourers ..	7	0	10	6					..			

(F.)—*Cigar Manufactories.*

No.	Class of Operatives.	Weekly Wages in British Currency.						Observations.
		Men.		Women.		Boys.		
		s.	*s.*	*s.*	*d.* *s.*	*s.*	*d.* *s.*	
1	Preparatory work.	..		..		1	3 to 2	Working hours, 5.
2	Casemakers ..	..		..			3	„ „ 10.
3	Wrappers ..	..		4	6 to 6	..		„ „ 11.
4	Rollers ..	6	to 18	..		..		
5	Sorters ..	18	27	..		..		„ „ 12.
6	Packers ..	9	12	..		..		
7	Overseers ..	..		..		..		90*l.* a-year with board and lodging.

(G.)—*Chemical Works.*

In 1868 the men employed in these works received, for 12½ hours' work (from 6 A.M. to 8 P.M.), 1*s.* 3½*d.* a day, earning 7*s.* 9*d.* a week.

The following were the rates of wages paid in Görlitz to journeyman artizans. As a general rule, only bakers, butchers, smiths, harness-makers, and saddlers receive board from their masters in addition to the wages stated:—

	Weekly Wages in British Currency.	
	s.	*d.*
Bakers	3	9½
Butchers	3	0
Smiths	4	6
Tinmen	10	6
Wheelwrights .. .. }	9	0
Basketmakers .. .. }		
Furriers	9	0
Strapmakers .. .. }	3	0
Saddlers .. .. .. }		
Locksmiths	10	6
Tailors	10	6
Shoemakers	6	0
House-painters	14	3
Joiners 12	0 to 15	0
Clothworkers.. 6	0 to 9	0

The wages of bricklayers and carpenters were from 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a day. Ordinary labourers earned, in summer, up to 1*s.* 7¼*d.* In the rural districts in the neighbourhood of Görlitz the rates of wages were about 25 per cent. less than the above.

The following contains some details of the rates of wages in the cloth manufactories of the town of Grünberg, Silesia:—

Weekly Wages for twelve hours a-day (in British currency).

Nature of the Employment.	Men.				Women and Girls.				Boys or Girls.			
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
Wool-pickers	..	..	..		1	6	to 5	0	..			
Wool-washers	8	6	to 9	0	..				..			
Wool-driers	..	..	..		4	0	5	0	..			
Wool-beaters	7	0	8	0	..				..			
Wool-carders	..	..	..		..				3	6	to 4	6
Hand-machine spinners	7	6	10	6	..				..			
Self-acting mule hands	..	..	..		..				4	0	5	3
Yarn spoolers	..	..	..		..				3	6	4	0
Pattern weavers	12	0	15	0	..				..			
Power-loom workers	..	..	..		4	6	6	0	..			
Cloth-knot pickers	..	..	..		4	0	5	0	..			
Pressers	8	0	9	0	4	6			..			
Fullers	7	6	15	0	..						5	0
Nappers	8	0	12	0	..						4	6
Machine washers	7	0	9	0	..				..			
Card-carriers	6	0	7	6	..				..			
Card-setters	7	0	13	6	..				..			
Dyers	7	6	9	0	..				..			
Shearers	5	0	6	0	..				3	9	5	0
Brushers	6	0	7	6	..				..			
Plushers	..	..	..		4*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* & 6*s.*				..			
Machine brushing hands	6	0	7	6	..				..			
Darners	..	..	..		5	0	6	0	..			
Tenters	10	6	11	0	..				..			
Embroideresses	..	..	..		9	0	11	0	..			
Overseers	12	0	30	0	..				..			

The wages of bricklayers and carpenters were 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a day. Ordinary labourers earned up to 1*s.* 7¼*d.* a day in summer.

The preceding details of wages earned in various branches of industry refer exclusively to Prussian Silesia, and it may be of interest to compare them with the rates of wages earned by spinners and weavers in the contiguous Kingdom of Saxony, and also in the other provinces of Prussia. These are to be gathered from two returns, for which the public are indebted to Dr. Engel. The first of them gives an account of the

wages paid in the Saxon spinning factories in 1855, resulting from inquiries made in fifteen establishments of all sizes. From a comparison made by the compiler, it appears that the wages in the Saxon spinning trade had varied very little from 1839 to 1855. In 1839 the average of weekly wages were :—

	s.	d.
For Spinners	7	4
"Vorspinners"	8	0
Drawing-frame tenders and spoolers ..	2	7
Pickers (girls)	2	3½
Winders	2	6½

Wages paid in the Spinning Factories of Saxony in 1855.

Branch of Employment.	Official Returns of Weekly Wages in British Currency.																			
	From 2,000 to 3,000 Spindles.		From 3,001 to 6,000 Spindles.				From 6,001 to 8,000 Spindles.						From 8,001 to 10,000 Spindles.		Over 10,000 Spindles.					
1. Office Department.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Managers, agents	...		...		...		...		...		...		18	0	75*l.* yearly		30*l.* yearly		...		24	0
Bookkeepers	...		...		...		...		...		54*l.* yearly		...		...		...		...		...	
Clerks	...		...		...		15	0	...		...		...		...		...		...		...	
Dispatching clerks	...		...		9	0	...		...		...		...		10 6 to 12 0		15*l.* yearly		7	6	5	6
2. Technical Department.																						
Overseer	...		18	0	...		15	0	...		...		...		...		...		30*l.* yearly		...	
Pickers—																						
Foremen	...		...		...		...		...		12 0 to 15 0		9	0	13	6	15	0	15	0	15	0
Men	...		...		3 0 to 5 1		...		...		...		...		...		2 3 to 6 0		...		...	
Girls	...		2 6 to 5 0		2 2½ to 2 11		2 0 to 3 5		...		...		...		...		2 3 to 3 9		...		3	0
Strippers—																						
Men	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...	
Women	...		...		...		...		4	0	...		...		...		...		5	0	...	
Grinders	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		3	5	...	
Spinners—																						
Overseers	...		...		...		4 6 to 6 0		...		...		...		...		...		5	0	5	6
Frame tenters	...		...		15	0	...		10	6	12	0	15	0	9	0	12	0	15	0	15	0
Fine (mule) spinners	...		8	6	7	0	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		6	0
Women	...		11	9	6	6	...		6	0	5 9 to 6 0		...		...		6 0 to 9 0		6	0	5	6
Mule backside piecers—																						
Boys	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		4 6 to 7 6		...		...	
Girls	...		1 0 to 1 2⅔		1 1½		0 9½ to 2 0		1 6		1 0 to 1 1½		...		...		...		0 9½ to 1 0		...	

Over 10,000 Spindles.		
s.	d.	
90*l.* yearly		
...		
45*l.* yearly		
...		
...		
...		
2	6	
to 3	0	
...		
1	9	
...		
...		
12	9	
...		
5	9	
to 6	9	
3	0	
...		
1	3	
to 1	6	

Branch of Employment.	Official Returns of Weekly Wages in British Currency.																							
	From 2,000 to 3,000 Spindles.		From 3,001 to 6,000 Spindles.						From 6,000 to 8,000 Spindles.								From 8,001 to 10,000 Spindles.				Over 10,000 Spindles.			
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Reelers—men and women	...		3	0	1	0	3	0	1	6	...		...		...		...		...		1	6	...		...		3	6
			to 3	6	to 3	0			to 4	0											to 3	0				
Twisters	...		...		4	6	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...	
					to 6	0																				
Spoolers	...		...		2	0	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		3	6
					to 3	0																				
Bundling pressers	...		...		7	6	6	0	...		...		...		7	6	...		...		...		...		...	
															to 10	6										
Yarn packers	...		...		2	9½	...		4	6	...		...		...		...		13	6	...		...		...	
Assistant ditto	...		4	6	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...	
General workmen	...		...		...		3	6	...		5	9	2	9	5	0	4	6	4	6	9	0	5	9	3	0
											to 10	6	to 5	9	to 9	0	to 6	9	to 9	0			to 7	2½	to 10	6
General workwomen	...		...		...		...		3	0	3	0	1	0	3	0	...		2	0	3	0	2	9	2	0
									to 4	0	to 4	6	to 2	9	to 3	9			to 2	6	to 3	9			to 3	0
Children ditto	...		...		...		...		...		1	2½	...		...		1	6	0	7½	...		0	9½	1	2½
																	to 2	6	to 0	14½			to 1	6		
Labourers	...		...		...		...		5	9	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...	
3. MACHINERY DEPARTMENT.																										
Mechanicians	...		...		...		12	0	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...	
Ditto	9	0	...		7	6	...		...		...		9	0	...		...		15	0	...		...		...	
					to 9	0																				
Smiths and turners	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		9	0	...		...		...	
Inspector	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		9	0	...		7	6	...		...		...	
Watchmen	...		...		4	0	...		...		...		...		...		...		7	6	...		...		...	

According to on estimate of the working expenses of a spinning factory of 7,000 spindles, the fixed weekly wages are set down as follows :—

	s.	d.
Dispatching clerk ("expediente")	12	0
Carding overseer	15	0
Spinning overseer	15	0
Picker girls	3	3
Girls employed as strippers	4	6
Ditto at the lapping machine	3	0
Ditto at the doubling and twisting ditto ..	to	
Ditto at the spreading ditto	5	6
Ditto at the stretching frame	2	0

It will be seen that the above wages, paid in 1839, differed very little from what they were sixteen years later, in 1855, although the cost of living had doubled during the period. Since 1855 wages have risen altogether about 20 to 25 per cent.

Subjoined are two statistical tables, also due to the pen of Dr. Engel, the first of which, giving a general review of the whole of the Saxon spinning industry in 1855 as regards the number of spindles at work, the number of hands employed, and the amount of wages paid, completes the information given in the preceding table, and the second treats of the condition, in respect to earnings, of the weaving population in Silesia.

A STATEMENT of the Number of Men, Women, and Young Persons employed in the whole of the Spinning Factories in the Kingdom of Saxony, and of the Wages received by them, in the Year 1855.

Spinning Factories, arranged according to the Number of Spindles.*	No. of Spindles.	Employés.			Operatives.						Total Operatives.	To every 1,000 Spindles there are—									Salaries and Wages of Employés and Operatives, in British Currency.
					Adults.			Children.				Employés.			Operatives.							
															Adults.			Children.				
		Technical.	Accountants.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.		Technical.	Accountants.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Total.	
																						£
Up to 1,000 spindles	6,820	...	...	...	121	74	195	19	1	20	215	...	...	...	17·74	10·85	28·59	2·78	0·15	2·93	31·51	1,620
1,001 to 2,000 „	37,444	10	8	18	353	385	738	131	38	169	907	0·27	0·21	0·48	9·43	10·28	19·71	3·50	1·01	4·51	24·22	8,415
2,001 to 3,000 „	46,904	17	6	23	329	471	800	130	73	203	1,003	0·36	0·13	0·49	7·01	10·04	17·01	2·77	1·56	4·33	21·38	10,095
3,001 to 4,000 „	80,376	34	21	55	718	671	1,389	221	132	353	1,742	0·42	0·26	0·68	8·93	8·35	17·28	2·75	1·64	4·39	21·67	15,900
4,001 to 5,000 „	62,044	16	11	27	357	478	835	159	106	265	1,100	0·25	0·18	0·43	5·75	7·71	13·46	2·56	1·71	4·27	17·73	11,490
5,001 to 6,000 „	44,772	15	7	22	290	312	602	137	68	205	807	0·33	0·16	0·49	6·48	6·97	13·45	3·06	1·52	4·58	18·03	9,150
6,001 to 7,000 „	90,594	27	18	45	807	782	1,589	221	188	409	1,998	0·29	0·20	0·49	8·91	8·63	17·54	2·44	2·07	4·51	22·05	27,750
7,001 to 8,000 „	29,892	16	8	24	194	291	485	69	55	124	609	0·53	0·27	0·80	6·49	9·73	16·22	2·31	1·84	4·15	20·37	11,400
8,001 to 9,000 „	33,640	6	6	12	306	288	494	77	67	144	638	0·18	0·18	0·36	6·12	8·56	14·68	2·29	2·00	4·29	18·97	9,000
9,001 to 10,000 „	27,768	12	1	13	243	186	429	90	68	158	587	0·43	0·04	0·47	8·75	6·70	15·45	3·24	2·45	5·69	21·14	6,885
10,001 to 12,000 „	41,268	11	5	16	250	335	585	117	68	185	770	0·27	0·12	0·39	6·06	8·12	14·18	2·83	1·65	4·48	18·66	12,390
Above 12,000 „	53,124	13	8	21	348	504	852	116	76	192	1,044	0·24	0·15	0·39	6·55	9·49	16·04	2·18	1·43	3·61	19·65	11,925
Total	554,646	177	99	276	4,216	4,777	8,993	1,487	940	2,427	11,420	0·32	0·18	0·50	7·60	8·61	16·21	2·60	1·70	4·38	20·59	136,020

The total number of spinning factories in 1855 was 133.

WAGES of Silesian Weavers.

77 Circles.	Class of Weavers.*	Earnings in British Currency.									
		Daily.				Weekly.				Per Ell.	
		s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	d.	d.
Government District of Liegnitz—											
Löwenberg	Linen weavers (house) ...			...				...		1½ to 2¾	
Lauban	Hand weavers	0	6	to 0	7½			...		...	
Hirschberg	Damask workers... ...	1	0	1	2½			...		...	
	Linen and calico weavers	0	4¾	0	6			...		...	
Bolkenhain	Coarse linen weavers ...			...		2	0	to 2	6	...	
	Fine ditto	1	0	1	6			...		...	
Government District of Breslau—											
Reichenbach	... ...			...		2	0	4	6	...	
Neurode	Weavers for job work ...			...		2	6	3	0	...	
Glatz	Cotton weavers	0	3¾	0	4¾			...		...	
Government District of Merseburg—											
Sangerhausen	Weavers for job work ...			...		5	0	6	0	...	
Government District of Erfurt—											
Nordhausen	... ...	1	0	2	6			...		...	
Government District of Muuster—											
Steinfurt	... ...	1	1½	1	2½			...		...	
Korsfeld	Cotton weavers	0	6½	0	7½			...		...	
Government District of Dusseldorf—											
Moers	Silk weavers			3	0			...		...	
Dusseldorf	Ditto			...		12	6	15	0	...	
Gladbach	Hand weavers	1	0	1	9½			...		...	
	Silk weavers			3	0			...		...	
Neuss	Ditto in the town ...	1	6	2	6			...		...	
	Cotton weavers ditto ...	1	0	1	2½			...		...	
	Linen weavers			1	2½			...		...	
	Other weavers	1	2½	1	8½			...		...	
	Silk weavers in the country			...		9	0	12	0	...	
	Lasting and cotton weavers in the country	1	0	1	6			...		...	
				1	0			...		...	
Grevenbroich	... ...			...				...		...	
Government District of Aix-la-Chapelle—											
Erkelenz	Hand weavers	1	2½	1	4¾			...		...	
	Weavers working for manufacturers			...		6	0	7	6	...	
Eugen	... ...			...		9	0	13	6	...	

* When the class of weavers is not specially stated, the earnings given apply to weavers in general.
† 1864.
‡ 12 to 13 hours' work a-day.

The foregoing returns, although not of very recent date, if examined in connection with others which have preceded it in this Report, and with the detailed information as to the rates of wages in the eastern, central, and western districts of Prussia, especially in the mining, glass, and metallurgic industries, which I furnished in my Report of last year on the industrial classes, may prove useful in assisting to convey a fuller knowledge of the wages earned generally by the working classes in this country.

A Report upon the Industrial Classes in Prussia would be incomplete without some mention of Berlin, the great metropolis of Prussian industry, but unfortunately the materials for drawing up anything like a full or accurate statement of the general financial and material condition of the working population of the

capital are altogether wanting, and it would be in vain for me to attempt the task.

I extract, however, from the Report of a Debate which took place in 1864 at a meeting of the Berlin Trades Union, the following statistical information supplied at the time for the purposes of the discussion, and relating to the wages earned in the capital.

I should state that at the meeting to which I refer the discussion turned first upon the condition of the labouring class, especially so called ("Arbeiter"), composed of men, women, and young persons, who, without having learnt any special branch of industry or any particular trade, earn their livelihood by manual labour of some kind; and secondly, on the wages earned by the artisan class. In the following abstract, unless it specially stated to the contrary, the day's work is always to be considered as of 12 hours.

(A.)—*Workmen ("Arbeiter").*

The highest wages earned in Berlin by this section of the working population are paid to drivers or carmen ("Fuhrwerkfuhrer"), who receive from 5*l.* 8*s.* to 6*l.* 12*s.* a month, and stone carriers, who work only by contract, and earn 5*l.* 8*s.* a month. Men of these two classes, however, are frequently without employment, and have to work 16 hours a-day and more. Labourers employed in sugar manufactories and tan-yards working 12 hours and sometimes during the night, begin by receiving 2*l.* a month, which is increased every two years by 3*s.* a month, up to 3*l.* 15*s.* Women employed in dyeing and calico works receive between 18*s.* and 30*s.* a month, and children (between the ages of 14 and 16) from 12*s.* to 18*s.*, but the latter are only employed in the calico works. Men in the employment of masons and carpenters earn 2*l.* 2*s.* a month in summer only; cigar makers by piecework, from 1*l.* 16*s.* to 3*l.* 12*s.*; cornmeasurers (sworn) from 12*s.* to 15*s.* a week, and assistant cornmeasurers who are not sworn, a third of this sum. Musicians earn 2*s.* an evening for playing on week days, on Sundays 3*s.*, and on festival days from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.*, according to agreement. Hawkers receive no fixed wages, but are paid according to what they distribute; firemen (furnacemen) receive 1*s.* 9*d.* a day

for 11 hours' work, and 3*d.* for every extra hour, averaging together about 12*s.* a week. Firewood cutters earn on the average 3*s.* a day, and wood carriers 1*s.* 3*d.* in winter and 2*s.* 9*d.* up to 3*s.* in summer; by contract work, as much as 4*s.* 6*d.* a day. Turf carriers, working from 6 in the morning till 9 in the evening, earn 3*s.* 6*d.* a day.

(B.)—*Artizans.*

Coopers, when working at fixed wages, receive 12*s.* to 15*s.* a week; but by contract work they can earn from 21*s.* to 24*s.* Bookbinders, for leather work, get from 12*s.* to 15*s.*, others from 10*s.* to 12*s.*, and girls employed in the trade get 6*s.* a week. The wages of bakers, in addition to board and lodging, are from 3*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* and in some instances 9*s.* a week; their work is exceedingly heavy, and they are employed for 19 hours consecutively, from 7 P.M. to 2 P.M. the next day. Printers, or compositors, earn on the average 15*s.* a week, except those employed in printing newspapers, who earn more, as they are required to work longer; girls employed in laying out the sheets, receive 4*s.* 6*d.* and 7*s.* 6*d.* a week, and boys somewhat less. Brushmakers 12*s.* a week, and by contract work, 15*s.*; girls employed in this trade get from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* a week. Tilers, slaters, &c., receive fixed wages at the rate of from 2*s.* 3*d.* to 2*s.* 4½*d.* a day. The wages of turners vary from 10*s.* 6*d.* to 21*s.* a week; the majority earning from 12*s.* to 15*s.*, and the minority from 15*s.* to 21*s.*; of dyers and tanners from 12*s.* to 15*s.*, and of glaziers from 10*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.* Goldsmiths and silversmiths, according to their capabilities, earn from 10*s.* 6*d.* to 21*s.* a week; beltmakers from 10*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.*, and with board and lodging from 4*s.* to 5*s.*; tinworkers from 9*s.* to 21*s.* for piece work and working 10 to 11 hours a day; and at fixed wages, generally 15*s.*; basketmakers from 12*s.* to 15*s.* and 17*s.* 6*d.*, and for fancy-work more; furriers 10*s.* a week: varnishers from 12*s.* to 18*s.*; painters, who have been apprenticed to the trade, from 15*s.* to 18*s.*; others from 12*s.* to 13*s.* 6*d.*; machine builders, by contract work, from 21*s.* to 24*s.* a week, and at fixed wages only 12*s.* Masons, in summer, working from 6 A.M. to 7 P.M., earn from 10*s.* 6*d.* to 13*s.* 6*d.*, and in winter from 7 A.M. to 5 P.M. 10*s.* 6*d.*; mechanists from 12*s.* to 15*s.*; nailers and workers in steel from 9*s.*

to 14*s.*, on the average 12*s.* a week; locksmiths and smiths, 12*s.*; shoemakers, during the summer months, working from 5 A.M. to 8 P.M. or even 9, on average 10*s.* 6*d.* a week at most; tailors from 12*s.* to 15*s.* at the highest; ropemakers, in addition to board and lodging, from 3*s.* to 6*s.* week: wheelwrights, on an average, 12*s.*, and joiners, cabinetmakers, and chairmakers from 10*s.* 6*d.* to 15*s.* a week, according to the skill of the workman; and potters 12*s.*; carpenters, according to the hours of labour, which vary from 13 to 12 hours and less, earn from 9*s.* 6*d.* to 13*s.* 6*d.* a week after the usual deduction of 9*d.* a week from their wages for the master carpenter.

The condition of the weavers of Berlin is described by a person charged by the Trades Union to report upon it, as deplorable, owing to the uncertain nature of their work, which depends so much on good or bad times, and also owing to the constant necessity under which they are, of looking out for fresh work, which occasions loss of time, and to the labour which they have to expend in adjusting their machinery for a new employer, without receiving any remuneration for it. The following were represented by a weaver to be the rates of wages earned in the weaving trade.

Of the 3,000 Berlin weavers, working 12 hours a-day, 20 per cent. earn 12*s.* a week; out of 50 per cent. one half earn 10*s.* 6*d.*, and the other, for inferior work, 9*s.* a week; the remaining 30 per cent. earn 7*s.* 6*d.* only. Of spoolers, (girls and children are employed at this work) 60 per cent. earn 5*s.* 6*d.* and 40 per cent. 4*s.* a week, and warpers up to 12*s.*

No statistical information exists as yet, or at least is in the possession of the Statistical Bureau, in respect to the wages of labour in the recently annexed territories of Prussia; but Dr. Engel has announced as far back ago as 1868, his intention of drawing up a statement, as comprehensive as possible, of the rates of wages in Prussia. Up to the present time, however, there exist no statistical materials which I can make use of except those from which I have extracted the information contained in my former and in this supplementary Report. I need scarcely add that there are great and often insurmountable difficulties, even for natives of the country, in obtaining direct information from millowners and directors of industrial establishments or from masters of

Guilds, &c., especially as regards wages and hours of labour, on matters relating to the workmen and artisans employed by them. Any attempt, therefore, in that direction by a foreigner would be likely to fail, especially if belonging to a country which is considered a foremidable rival on the field of industry.

One of the questions upon which the Earl of Clarendon, in his Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, especially requested that information, if possible, might be furnished, is that which relates to the purchase power of money in Prussia as compared with England. I beg to observe that I have already treated of one portion of this subject, viz.—the purchase power of money in so far as it concerns the industrial classes in Prussia, in considerable detail in the first part of my Report of last year. I gave returns showing what sums (in English currency) were required to meet the annual expenditure of a working man and his family for the necessaries of life in various provinces, Government districts, circles, and seats of industry in Prussia in the year 1860, which was the most recent date for which any statistical materials of so detailed a nature were at hand. In this "necessary expenditure" I included, besides what are commonly termed necessaries of life, such as food, lodging, clothing, firing, lighting, and furniture; also tools, taxes, and school money. The difference between the sum required to meet this necessary outlay and the whole income of the working man and his family, obviously represents the amount which remains at his disposal for objects not of primary necessity, such as comforts of all kinds, mental and bodily recreation, &c., and for savings upon which he can draw during sickness and loss of employment, or in old age; in addition, perhaps, to that, he may receive, in such cases, from Benefit Societies. What I have previously stated as to the deficiency of statistical information in reference to the working classes in general in this country, is unfortunately true to a still greater extent in respect to the statistics of what they consume, although these are of even more importance than statistics of production, for the simple reason that what is consumed must first be produced, but what is produced need not necessarily be consumed. Any one practically acquainted with the subject (which of course

I cannot pretend to be) will probably admit, however, the extreme difficulty there is, even when the official machinery required for the purpose has been set in motion, of ascertaining exactly from only a few individuals in a single locality to what extent they satisfy, or are in a condition to satisfy their wants, necessary and dispensable.

The statistician and the social economist are indebted in this, as in other respects, to the present head of the Statistical Bureau at Berlin for collecting, tabulating, and working up with his usual power of analysis, the whole of the statistical matter, new and old, bearing upon this question, and for having ascertained, partly by induction and partly by theorizing, what is the general law by which the expenditure necessary to satisfy the several requirements of life is governed in different sections of the community,—at least of that portion of it which is in comparatively easy circumstances, or above the reach of want. In one of his recent publications, Dr. Engel gives the subjoined comparative statement as showing the average relative percentage in Prussia of the various items of expenditure of families belonging to three different classes of the population, viz.—of the family of what is considered in this country a tolerably well-to-do member of the working class, of a man whose income is double that of the former (this may include some belonging to the artizan class also), and thirdly, of a person in easy circumstances ("des Wohlstandes.")

Items of Expenditure.	Per-centage of the Expenditure of a Family of—					
	A Working Man with an Income 45*l.* to 60*l.* a-year.		A Man of the Intermediate Class ("Mittelstandes") with an Income of from 90*l.* to 120*l.* a-year.		Of a Person in Easy Circumstances ("des Wohlstandes") with an Income of from 150*l.* to 225*l.* a-year.	
	Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.	
1. Subsistence	62·0	95·0	55·0	90·0	50·0	85·0
2. Clothing	16·0		18·0		18·0	
3. Lodging	12·0		12·0		12·0	
4. Firing and lighting ..	5·0		5·0		5·0	
5. Education, public worship, &c.	2·0	5·0	3·5	10·0	5·5	15·0
6. Legal protection ..	1·0		2·0		3·0	
7. Care of health ..	1·0		2·0		3·0	
8. Comfort, mental and bodily recreation	1·0		1·5		3·5	
Total	100·0		100·0		100·0	

The foregoing table demonstrates the general law which Dr. Engel has founded upon wide and searching inquiries, extending to the lower strata of that class of the population which is styled "Wohlhabend," in good circumstances. It indicates that, whereas, the poorer a family is, the greater is the proportion of its total outlay required for subsistence, the percentage of outlay for clothing is approximatively, and for lodging invariably, the same in all the three classes brought under consideration. The increased percentage of the other items of expenditure in the two richer classes, and consequently the greater means of saving which they have at their disposal, does not seem to call for further explanation; the total outlay for such items in the case of the working man, with whom I am more immediately concerned, will hardly, under any circumstances, exceed 5 per cent. of his income.

The propounder of the economic law indicated above has himself specially called attention to the fact that the figures given by him are based on averages only, and that they cannot, of course, lay claim to accuracy in every particular case, but that in the main they will be found to be correct. In drawing distinction between towns and rural districts, between large and small towns, and between mountain districts and plains, these figures are liable, no doubt, to many exceptions. Another disturbing element is to be found in the variety of opinions and ideas which prevail, even amongst those who live in the most modest way, as to what, according to local style of living, are to be looked upon as necessaries, and what are not. A number of other accessory considerations also come into play. For instance, a rise or fall, whether temporary or permanent, in the cost of any article of consumption naturally has an influence on the prices of other articles of consumption. As regards house-rent also, in Berlin and the large towns the outlay required is greater, and in the rural districts and some of the small towns less than the 12 per cent. given in the Table. In Berlin itself the average outlay under this head is 16 per cent., but it is often 20 per cent. and 30 per cent.

In examining the results of Dr. Engel's researches, on which the foregoing calculations are founded, I find that the cost of food absorbs 62 per cent. of an annual

income of between 300 and 400 thalers (45*l.* to 60*l.* sterling), and, when the income is double, 55 per cent. In incomes which fall as low as 33*l.* this percentage rises to 67 per cent., and, in incomes of 26*l.*, to 71 per cent. On the other hand, the outlay for lodgings generally falls, in such cases, from 12 per cent. to 8·3 per cent, and 9 per cent., and only exceptionally rises, preserving, on the whole, its fixed character.

This doctrine of the average percentages of expenditure is confirmed by the enquiries instituted by Ducpetiaux in Belgium, and by Le Play, in his account of the budgets of working men in France and the German districts bordering upon it, in Switzerland, and in Savoy. Enquiries recently made at Hamburg in the same direction, although dissent has been expressed in many quarters, more particularly as regards the percentage of outlay for lodging, have not invalidated the principle laid down by Dr. Engel.

If the detailed account given in my Report of last year of the average necessary expenditure of working men and their families in various parts of Prussia be referred to, it will be found, on comparing the particulars which it contains with the tables in Appendix No. 3 to this Report, showing the relative percentage of the expenditure of a working man's family throughout the various provinces for subsistence, clothing, and lodging, that these rates of percentage are all, with some trifling exceptions, within the limits laid down by Dr. Engel; that is to say, between 50 per cent. and 70 per cent. for subsistence, and 8 per cent. to 16 per cent. for lodging, Dr. Engel's calculations being, as I have previously observed, founded on averages. This agreement is, on the one hand, a valuable testimony to the accuracy of the particulars furnished in my former Report, and may also be taken as further evidence of the truth of Dr. Engel's theory. In the few instances where the propositions do not tally, the divergence may fairly be ascribed to local circumstances, connected either with the spot or the district.

The percentage given by Dr. Engel, as shown above, of the aggregate outlay for food, clothing, and lodging in the lowest of the three classes selected for comparison, viz., 95 per cent., and which is not intended to apply exclusively to this country, is not exceeded in the Tables

which I have added in Appendix No. 3, an indirect proof at least that the condition of the Prussian working men referred to in those tables is not an unfavourable one.

In harmony with what I have just stated, I will quote a passage from a very recent official communication, emanating from Geheimer Regierungs-Rath Jacobi, whose treatise on the rates of wages in Lower Silesia I have referred to, and utilized in the early part of this Report. He says, "It is true, indeed, that many of the factory operations, especially with the present enhanced prices of the necessaries of life (1868) are unable to lay anything by, either because their means are too small, or because their unavoidable expenses (in the case of large families) are too great. It is equally certain, nevertheless, that there are many in a position to save money. This is especially true of young operatives, who have only themselves to care for, and who live with their parents, &c. The same wages which they receive now will, one day, perhaps, have to support a wife and children; therefore, whatever may be the case in the future, there is obviously a margin for present savings. To endeavour to induce these young working men to save is a task which may be called the moral duty of every mill-owner. May this task be more and more readily understood and accepted by employers and employed."

This advice is, indeed, well deserving of consideration, and if, indeed, in Germany, where frugality, in all grades of saving, is much more the rule than the exception, is it not even more applicable to our working classes? It is true that early marriages are far more in common in this country than they are amongst the industrial population of England, and, until very lately, there were legal impediments in the way of them, but a comparison of the rates of wages and the relative cost of living in the two countries will show whether it is not as easy for the British as for the German workman to save.

In the latest Annual Reports of the Public Savings' Bank of fifteen provincial circles or departments of Lower Silesia, comprising the greatest part of the Government District of Liegnitz, it is stated, amongst other deposits, that upwards of 595,000 thalers (89,220*l.*) were deposited by servants, and nearly 173,000 thalers (25,950*l.*) by journeymen and apprentices. The very

imperfect official returns published on this subject give no adequate particulars as regards the other provinces of Prussia in respect to the deposits in the Public Savings' Banks of factory operatives, mines, &c., and the same may be said of the savings of the working classes contributed to loan societies, burial grounds, and other similar institutions. There are probably, also, few mill-owners in this country to whom some of their workmen have not entrusted money saved from their earnings, and which, of course, escape the statistical observations. In many of the factories of Lower Silesia regular savings' banks have been established for the workmen, the deposits in several of which in 1860 exceeded 10,000 thalers (1,500*l.*), and, in two instances, 13,000 thalers (1,950*l.*)

The Resolutions passed and the desires expressed by the International Statistical Congress, to which I have previously alluded in this Report, show clearly the importance which is attached to statistics of the rates of wages (that is, to the price of labour) and also to statistics of the prices of the necessaries of life. The former, without the latter, would be as valueless as statistics of consumption without a knowledge of the prices of the chief articles of food, and of their periodical and local fluctuations. The mere fact that wages have risen considerably in a certain district, within a certain space of time is of no value as affecting the condition of the working classes, unless it can be shown at the same time that the prices of the necessaries of life have not also risen in an equal or nearly equal degree. Amongst the necessaries of life the outlay required for food, as shown above, here in Prussia, averages between 60 per cent. and 70 per cent. of the whole art of subsistence of families of the lower grade, of that class which is styled here "Wohlhabend," viz., of those who are tolerably well off, whether their trades are independent, or derived from labour. The statistical information under this head, derived from the publications of the "Berlin Statistical Bureau," or supplied to me by the courtesy of its head, Dr. Engel, is fortunately so full and exhaustive that I have thought it useful to extract the quintescence of it, as given in the Tables, which will be found in the Appendix, Nos. IV, V, and VI of this Report.

These Tables show—

1. The average price per "scheffel" (the scheffel equals 1·5 bushels) of the chief cereals, and of potatoes in each of the old provinces of Prussia, and throughout the Monarchy during the years 1816-69.

2. The average prices of the principal articles of food for man and beast (comprising, in addition to corn, peas, and potatoes, meat, butter, fat, hay, and straw) in each of the old provinces of Prussia during the years 1860-67.

3. The average prices of similar articles at the principal markets of Prussia in 1869.

These Returns appear to me to indicate with sufficient clearness the local and temporary fluctuations of the various prices, and do not appear to require any further explanation.

Appendix IV gives the average prices for certain fixed periods (for 10, 23, 44, and 53) whereas Appendices V and VI show the results of single years, and thus enable the reader to follow the fluctuations of prices from year to year.

A very interesting historical and statistical account of prices in general in Prussia appeared in the Official Statistical Work published annually in the States and Bureau in Berlin for the year 1867,* from page 93 to 230. Unfortunately, I have neither time nor space to do more than refer to it very briefly.

It gives the annual prices of animal product as far back, in some instances, as the year , and, in the case of Silssia, these Returns go back even to the year 1377. The prices of tobacco are given from 1816; of hops, from 1822; of sugar, from 1772; spirits ("Brandwein"), from 1811; wood, 1820; of bricks, tiles, and lime, from 1811. The prices of metals could not be ascertained with accuracy from an earlier date than 1848. The price of money is treated of in the papers to which I am referring at great length and very minutely. The rates of discount at the Berlin Exchange are given from 1814, and the quotations of the price of money from 1811.

The quotations of paper money are from 1807, and the continuous series of the rates of exchange at the Berlin Bourse from the year 1767 to the present time,

* "Jahrbuch fur die Amtliche Statistik des Preussischen Staats." Berlin, 1867.

that is to say, to the year 1865, which is the latest date to which these statistics are brought down.

As regards matters connected with the preservation of health, the answers to the several inquiries contained in Lord Clarendon's despatch, if we except those simple hygienic laws and precautions which are of universal application, must obviously vary according to the climatic conditions of different places situated within Prussian territory, their latitude, proximity to the sea, &c., and still more according to the particular constitution of individuals. It is difficult, therefore, to lay down any especial rules for guidance in the matter. In respect, however, to the observance of certain sanitary rules, the importance of which is not to be overrated, the people of North Germany, and in particular the industrial classes, are indebted for their enunciation in a popular form to an anonymous philanthropist who in 1862 advertised a prize of 100 Friedrichs d'or for a work to contain "Advice to the people on the preservation of health."

This announcement was accompanied by a detailed description of the plan on which the work was to be written. It was to treat—

1. Of the style of nourishment and of articles of food;
2. Of the influence of air on the human constitution;
3. Of labour; and,
4. Of the means of preventing and treating illness, &c.

To this was to be added a summary of the principal trades and manufactures, and of the injurious effects of each upon workmen, accompanied by a statement of the best and simplest means of obviating them.

This prize was awarded by the Board selected for adjudication from amongst the highest medical authorities in Prussia to two of the competing works sent in on condition that they should be published. The first of these, entitled, "Advice to the People on the Preservation of Health,"* was published in 1864 by Dr. Otto Schraube, a provincial physician of Auerfurt, who is since dead, and the other entitled "Popular Hygiene" ("Gesundheits-

* "Rathschläge an das Volk zur Erhaltung der Gesundheit." Von Dr. Otto Schraube, Kreisphysicus. (Gselliusschen Buchhandlung zu Berlin, 1864.)

pflege für das Volk," Berlin 1864, bei Herschwald), by Dr. Edmund Friederich, practising physician at Dresden. The latter of these two works, both of which are of acknowledged excellence, is more especially written for the humblest and least educated classes of the people, whereas Dr. Schraube has addressed himself to the educated public, considering with justice that the lower classes of the people are rarely, if ever, inclined or in a condition to seek instruction from a book on the all-important questions of everyday life, and that it is the business of educated laymen to convey it to them by oral advice.

In both of the works above-mentioned the sanitary matters, in respect to which information is required in Lord Clarendon's Circular despatch of June 7, are discussed in a clear and intelligible form. In the chapters on Food, including, of course, Beverages, it is shown what indulgences under this head are advisable or permissible, and what are to be avoided for climatic reasons, and what drinks are injurious and unnecessary. In Chapter II of Dr. Schraube's Book the subject of Lodging and Clothing, particularly as regards the working man, is discussed in considerable detail. Chapter III is devoted to an examination of the sanitary conditions of labour, and touches also on the question of overwork. Chapter V warns the lower classes in particular against their prevalent proneness to indulge in quack medicines, and be deceived by medical impostors.

In reply to the question as to whether a working man can find healthy lodgings in this country not far from his work, and at a reasonable price, I must refer the reader of this Report to my Report of last year on the Industrial Classes (chapter II, page 74), under the heading "Dwellings of the Working Classes," as containing the substance of the information which it was possible for me to obtain on the subject. I can only repeat what I have there stated—viz., that it is almost impossible to describe in general terms, for the guidance of an immigrant English artizan, the character or sufficiency of the lodgings occupied by the working classes in Prussia, varying so widely as they do in different localities, particularly as household economy and mode of living are dissimilar in this country from what they are in England. As regards ventilation it may be safely described as generally defec-

tive. Stoves being in universal use, and in fact almost indispensable in this cold climate, dwelling rooms are deprived of such ventilation as the chimney affords to the poorest habitation in England. In some of the rural districts mentioned in my former Report overcrowding to a great extent is but too common.

Efforts, however, have not been wanting in this, as in other countries, to improve the dwellings of the working classes, but on too small a scale to do more than reach the surface of the evil. In 1844, when the First Industrial Exhibition of the Zollverein was held at Berlin, this subject, which had been mooted some years before by Professor Hüber, of Wernizerode, but more from a sanitary point of view than economic grounds, first seriously engaged the attention of social reformers in Germany anxious to promote the well-being of the working population. A number of local associations, with one Central Association, were established with this object. These were speedily followed by the formation of "Co-operative Building Societies," with the object of erecting dwelling-houses yielding a low rate of interest on the capital expended, to become eventually, by a gradual course of payments, the property of the tenants. This system, however, of acquiring freeholds did not prove very successful, and was subsequently abandoned altogether. The societies confined their efforts to erecting dwellings and letting them at cheap rents to persons of small means. The Co-operative Building Society of Berlin, however, still preserves the principle of the gradual acquisition of house property, although it has practically for many years become a dead letter. Berlin is indebted to the late Emperor Nicolas of Russia for another similar institution, founded by His Majesty, intitled "The Alexandra Joint Stock Building Company." Both of these associations are in a sound and prosperous financial condition. The latter, during ten years of its existence up to 1867, constructed six buildings, containing from 12 to 31 separate dwellings; altogether 120 separate dwellings, to accommodate 600 persons, and 22 workshops. The other society, during the period from 1849 to 1851, built only 10 houses, containing 91 dwellings and 9 workshops; and from 1851 to 1856 8 large buildings and 6 cottages, containing 130 dwellings and 22 workshops, capable of lodging, 1,000 people. Building societies for similar

purposes have been established at Stettin, Königsberg, Görlitz, and other towns; but the aggregate results cannot be considered otherwise than insignificant when compared with the growing wants of a great industrial population, and can hardly have any appreciable effect in abating the evil with which they are called upon to contend. The great and difficult problem of providing roomy and healthy dwellings, at a moderate cost, for the working classes, can only be solved by the hearty and spontaneous efforts of those who are more directly interested in its solution, aided by the gradual influence of education.

Before quitting this subject I may mention that it invariably forms one of the topics of discussion at the Congresses of German Political Economists, and that the question has recently been treated especially, and with great ability, by Dr. Emil Sax, in his work published at Vienna in 1869, entitled "Condition of the Dwellings of the Working Classes, and their Reform." * This work contains an exhaustive review of the history of the question in Europe, and of the various attempts which have been made to remedy or mitigate the want of suitable dwellings for the working classes.

In answer to the inquiries put in paragraph 3 of Lord Clarendon's Circular, as to whether the superior skill and trustworthiness of the workmen, and the quality of the work executed, influence or have influenced the rates of wages, I am only able to state generally that wages, as a rule in this country, are proportioned to the individual skill and industry of the workmen. To the best of my knowledge there is no such a thing as a dead level in any branch of industry; but whether, or to what extent, individual skill has operated, irrespective of other causes, in raising the general standard of wages, I cannot venture to pronounce any opinion which others are not equally competent to form, for I have not the materials on which to found one. The qualities of the German artizan, thanks to extensive emigration, are almost as well known abroad as they are here, and wherever he goes they generally insure him employment and success.

* "Die Wohnungszustande der Arbeitenden Klassen und ihre Reform." Wien, 1869. A. Picklers Wittwe und Sohn.

To furnish full and trustworthy answers to many of the inquiries contained in Lord Clarendon's Circular would require more time than my other official duties would allow me to devote to the work, and also, I may add, a more intimate and practical knowledge of the working classes in Prussia than I can possibly pretend to. But in this, as in my previous Report, I have endeavoured, in as clear a form as possible, to supply all the information within my reach calculated to throw any light upon the material and social condition of the industrial population of this country.

(Signed) GEORGE PETRE,
Secretary of Embassy.

Berlin, December 28, 1870.

APPENDIX I.

Law relating to the Attachment of Wages or Salaries of June 21, 1869.

WE, William, by the Grace of God King of Prussia, &c., in the name of the North German Confederation, and with the consent of the Federal Council and of the Diet, enact as follows:—

§ 1. Money due as remuneration (wages, salary, fees, &c.) for work or service done in virtue of an agreement to do work or service, shall not, in so far as the industry of the person entitled to the remuneration is wholly or chiefly monopolised by the work or service agreed upon, be attached for the purpose of securing or satisfying the claims of a creditor until such work or service is concluded, and unless the day on which the remuneration was payable by law, agreement, or custom has elapsed, without its having been claimed by the person entitled to receive it.

§ 2. Exclusion or limitation by contract of any of the provisions of § 1 can have no legal validity.

In as far as attachment is excluded by the foregoing provisions, all disposal by cession, assignment, pledging, or by any other legal operation, is invalid at law.

§ 3. Any kind of profit due to the person entitled to remuneration is to be considered as coming under the head of remuneration. It makes no difference whether

the latter is calculated according to time or is given for piecework.

If it has been stipulated that the remuneration is to include in one sum the price or value of materials or the equivalent for other expenses incurred, then the amount, exclusive of the price or value of materials, and minus the expenses, is to be considered as remuneration in the sense of the present law.

§ 4. The present law does not apply—

1. To the salaries and emoluments of public servants.

2. To the exaction of direct personal state taxes and communal rates (including circle, church, school, and other parish rates of a similar kind), provided that such taxes and rates have not been due for more than three months.

3. To the salaries and emoluments of persons in permanent private employment, provided that their total amount exceeds 400 thalers (60*l.* sterling) a year.

Service is to be considered as permanent in this sense if it is fixed either by law, agreement, or custom, for a term of one year, or, in case of no definite term being fixed, when it is necessary to give at least three months' notice to quit.

§ 5. This law is to take effect from the 1st of August, 1869.

The attachments issued up to that date which are at variance with the provisions of this law are, at the desire of the debtor, to be cancelled or restricted.

On the other hand, the provisions of the second part of § 2 have no retrospective application.

Given under Our Royal hand and seal, at Berlin, June 21, 1869.

(Signed) WILLIAM.

(Signed) COUNT VON BISMARCK-SCHÖNHAUSEN.

APPENDIX II.

STATEMENT showing the Ordinary Rates of Wages of Men, Women, and Young Persons employed in Manufactures; of Miners; and of Journeymen Artizans, throughout the Government District of Liegnitz (Silesia), in 1867-68.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages in British Currency.*												Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).				
			s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
1	Flax dressing	Circle of Lobau ..			0	9			0	4¾		..			
		,, Lowenberg ..	0	10¾ to	1	0	0	7¼ to	0	9½		..			
		,, Glogau ..			1	1¼			0	6		..			
		,, Görlitz ..	1	0	2	0			0	9½	0	6 to	0	7¼	
2	Flax spinning mill ..	Town of Sagau ..	0	7¼	1	9	0	6	1	2½		..			
	Twisting and dyeing ..	,, Neusalz ..	0	10¾	1	9	0	6	1	3		..			12 hours' work per day.
			1	9	3	0		..				..			Locksmiths, joiners, turners.
			2	3	2	8		..				..			Thread spinners.
					1	0		..				..			Labourers ("tagelöhner").
		,, Landshut ..			1	3		..				..			Common workmen.
				..			0	8	0	10		..			Spinners (wómen).
				..				..			0	10	1	0	Heckling machine workers (10 hours).
			1	6	2	0		..				..			Engineers, firemen, &c.
			1	9	2	0		..				..			Hand turners.
			2	0	3	6		..				..			Overseers.
		,, Libau ..	1	0	1	6	0	6	0	8½	0	6	0	8½	12 hours' work. Others at 13.
		Circle of Sprottau ..	0	10¾	1	2½	0	7¾	0	10¾		..			Hecklers, 15½*d.* to 18*d.*; spinners (women), 12*d.* to 14½*d.*
		,, Hirschberg ..	1	0	1	3	0	6	0	9		..			Hecklers.
		,, Löwenberg ..	1	0	2	0		..				..			

* When not expressly stated to the contrary, the wages are always to be assumed as daily.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages in British Currency.										Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).		
			s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
		Circle of Löwenberg ..	..		..		0	6	to 1	3	..		Spinners (women).
					2	0		..			..		Head hecklers, head engineer, and spinners' overseer.
					3	0		..			..		Foreman spinner.
		,, Laubau ..	0	8½	to 1	0	0	6	0	9½	..		
			per hour				per hour						
			..				0	6	0	10	..		Spoolers (women).
3	Linen, cotton, and woollen weaving (also double worsted spinning and dyeing)	Town of Schmiedeberg ..	0	9½	0	10¾		..			..		At the weaving loom.
		,, Landshut ..			1	0			0	6	..		Weaving.
			..				0	6	0	9	..		Spooling, yarn mangling.
					1	6			0	8	..		Dressing.
			1	3	1	6		..			..		Shearing.
			..				0	6	0	8	..		Spooling.
			1	6	2	0		..			..		In the workshops and engine-room.
		,, Bolkenhain ..	0	10	1	0			0	8	..		Shearers and spoolers.
					1	6			1	0	..		Weavers.
			1	9	2	0		..			..		Dressers.
			2	0	2	6		..			..		Overseers.
		,, Hirschberg ..	1	0	1	2½		..			0	3 to 0	4 Spoolers.
		Circle of Laubau ..			1	2			1	0	0	6 0	7¾ The lowest earnings of a weaver, man or woman, of feeble powers, 7d. a-day.
					2	6		..			..		Weavers' overseer.
					2	3		..			..		Dressers' overseer.
			..				0	6	0	7¼	..		At spooling.
			..				0	7¼	0	8	..		At warping.
4	Bleaching and mangling works (also dyeing works)	Town of Lobau ..	0	9	1	9	0	8	0	9	..		12 hours' work.
		,, Landshut ..	0	9	1	0	0	7¼	0	9	..		Common workmen.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages in British Currency.										Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).		
			s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	
	Bleaching and mangling works (also dyeing works).	Town of Landshut ..	1	2½ to	1	4¾		..		..			
			1	6	1	9		..		..			"Unterleger" } Men employed in bleaching earn 13*d.*,
			2	0	2	6		..		..			Journeymen manglers } in dressing, 17*d.*, and
													Foremen .. .. } women, 9*d.*
		„ Schmiedeberg ..			1	4¾		..		..			"Unterleger."
*					1	9		..		..			Assistants.
					2	6		..		..			Foremen.
		Circle of Landshut ..	0	8	1	0	0	5 to	0	8		..	Overseers, 36*l.* to 45*l.* annual salary.
		„ Hirschberg ..	0	8	2	0			0	8		..	
			0	10¾	1	2½		..				..	
		„ Bunglau ..	1	0	1	6		..				..	
		„ Bolkenhain ..	1	1½	1	3½		..				..	
		„ Löwenberg ..	1	0	1	9	0	8	0	9½		..	
			1	2½	1	6	0	4¾	1	0		..	
			per hour				per hour						
		„ Schönau ..	1	2½	1	4¾		..				..	
5	Wool spinning factory (carded yarn)	Town of Lübau ..	0	9	1	0			0	6		..	
			1	3½	1	6			0	9		..	Piece-work.
		„ Freystadt ..	0	9	1	3			0	6		..	
		„ Grünberg ..	0	9	1	4	0	6	0	9		..	Foremen, 2*s.* 6*d.*
		„ Laubau ..			1	0			0	6		..	
		Circle of Sagau ..	1	0	1	1¼	0	7¼	0	8½		..	Washing and drying the wool, &c.
			per hour				per hour						
			1	6	2	0*	0	1½	1	0		..	* 6*d.* per warp of 100 skeins; 4*d.* ditto weft yarn ("schuss").
					3	3		..				..	Chief engineer.
		„ Glogau ..	1	0	1	2¾	0	6	0	9	0	2¾ 0 3½	
		„ Löwenberg ..			1	3	0	6	0	9		..	
					2	0		..				..	Overseer.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.										Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).		
			s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
	Wool spinning factory (carded yarn)	Circle of Görlitz ..	1	1½	to 1	8	0	9	to 0	9¾		0 9	
					3	5		..			..		Spinners' foreman.
		,, Grünberg ..	0	9½	1	0	0	6	0	7½	..		
6	Cotton spinning factory ..	Town of Hirschberg ..			1	0		..			..		Card cleaners, &c.
			1	2½	1	6	0	6	0	9	..		Overseer.
					2	0		..			..		Chief engineer.
					5	0		..			..		Spinners' foreman.
		Circle of Sagau ..	1	3	1	6		..			..		Spinners .. } For 12 hours. More for overwork.
			1	0	1	3	0	6	0	9	0 4¾	0 6	Cleaners, pressers, packers, &c. }
		Town of Grünberg ..	1	6	1	9		..			..		Spinners (also 2*s.*).
			0	10	1	6		..			..		Pressers, dyers.
				..			0	8	0	9	..		Carders.
				..			0	10	1	0	..		At the loom (also up to 16½*d.*).
7	Cloth manufactories ..			..			1	3	1	6	..		Embroideresses.
		,, Heyerswerda ..	0	6	0	6½		..			..		With board.
		,, Liegnitz ..	1	0	0	13½		..			..		Washers }
			1	0	2	2½		..			..		Spinners
			1	3	2	3½		..			..		Weavers
			0	10	0	14½		..			..		Dressers } Chiefly piece-work.
			0	9	0	13		..			..		Shearers
			1	3	1	6		..			..		Dyers
			1	1½	1	5		..			..		Pressers }
			1	5	2	0		..			..		Furnace-men, according to the length of the day's work.
				..			0	6	0	8	..		For picking.
				..			0	7¼	0	9	..		For carding.
				..			0	7	0	10	..		For wool sorting.
		Town of Laubau ..	1	0	1	6	0	8	0	9	0 6	0 7½	
		,, Sagau ..		..			0	7¼	0	8½	..		Carding, beating, &c.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.								Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).			
			s.	d.		s.	d.		s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
	Cloth manufactories ..	Town of Sagau ..	1	6	to 2	0	0	7½	to 1	0	..				Spinners, for 13 hours' work.
			1	0		1	9	0	7½		1	0	..		First engineer, 19s. 6d. a-week.
								0	7½		1	0	..		Hand weavers.
		(Day's work generally 13 hour)	1	0		2	0		..				..		For 12 to 13 hours' work } Power-loom
						1	6		..				..		For 16 hours' work } weavers.
						1	0		..				..		Fullers (for 16 hours' work, 2s.).
			1	2½		1	6	0	6½		0	7¾	..		Dressers.
															Shearers (head dresser, 27s. a-week).
															Ordinary workmen, for washing &c.
															Furnace-men.
		Town of Jauer ..	1	6		2	0		..				..		Spinners { At the carding machines, power looms, spooling, napping, &c.
			1	6		2	6	0	6		0	9	..		Hand weavers (12 hours' work).
		Muskau			..			0	6		0	9	..		Wool picking, carding, napping, warping, &c.
			0	9		1	3		..				..		Beaters, dyers.
			½	6		2	3		..				..		Spinners (overseer, 18s. a-week).
			1	6		2	0	0	9		1	6	..		Weavers (overseer, 12s. to 15s. a-week).
			1	0		2	0		..				..		Fullers (overseer, 15s. a-week).
						0	7½		..				..		Shearers (overseer, 15s. a-week).
															Dyers (overseer, 24s. to 30s. a-week).
		Circle of Schonau ..			..				..				..		On the average, 13 hours a-day.
		,, Sprottau ..	1	6		2	0				0	9	..		Spinners.
					..			0	9		1	0	..		Weavers (women).
			0	9		1	6				0	6	..		Dressers, fullers.
		,, Laubau ..	1	7¼		2	6		..				..		Spinners.
			1	0		1	1¾		..				..		Power-loom weavers.
			1	9		2	0		..				..		Hand-loom weavers.
						2	6		..				..		Dyers.
			1	6		2	0		..				..		Fullers, nappers.
						1	9		..				..		Firemen.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.												Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).				
			s.	d.		s. d.	s.	d.		s. d.	s.	d.		s. d.	
	Cloth manufactories ..	Town of Laubau ..	1	0	to	1 6	0	6	to	1 0	0	6	to	0 8	Other workmen.
			3	6		4 6		..				..			Weavers' overseer.
8	Dyeing, fulling, and pressing works	,, Hoyarswerda ..	0	6		0 7¼		..				..			Journeymen fullers, with board.
		,, Grünberg ..	0	10		1 9	0	7¼		0 9		..			
		,, Glogau ..	1	0		1 2½		..				..			
		,, Sagau ..	1	0		1 6		..				..			Fullers.
						2 0		..				..			Ditto for 16 hours' work.
						1 0				7¼		..			Nappers.
			1	2½		1 6		..				..			Cloth shearers.
															Head engineer.
						4 6		..				..			Dressers' overseer (daily).
		Circle of Laubau ..				1 2½				0 8		..			
		,, Gorlitz ..	1	6		2 3		..				..			Head fullers.
						1 9		..				..			Second hand ditto.
			1	1¼		3 0	0	7¾		1 0		..			Artizans (joiners, locksmiths, smiths) 9s. to 12s. a-week.
9	Linen printing works ..	Town of Schmiedeberg ..				1 3		..				..			Ordinary workmen.
						2 3		..				..			Printers.
10	Carpet manufactory ..	,, Jauer	1	0		1 3		..					0	4	Brush boys.
11	Woollen goods manufactory	,, Schmiedeberg ..	1	3		2 0	0	7¼		1 0		..			
	Fancy wool ditto ..	,, Liegnitz ..	0	9		1 6	0	6		0 9		..			
12	Paper manufactory ..	Circle of Lüben ..	0	10¾		1 6	0	6		1 3			0	7¼	
		Town of Hirschberg ..	0	10¾		2 0	0	4¾		1 0		..			
						..		..			0	2	0	2½	For 6 hours' work.
		Circle of Bunzlau ..				0 9	0	5½		0 7¼		..			Common workmen, rag sorters, &c.
						1 0		..				..			Paper cutters, packers.
						1 2½		..				..			Cylinder engine men.
						1 4¾		..				..			Overseer of the rooms.
						1 6		..				..			Head engineer.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages in British Currency.								Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).				
			s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
	Paper manufactory ..	Circle of Rothenberg ..	0	9 to	2	6	0	6 to	0	9					
		,, Schönau ..	0	10¾	1	4¾	0	6	0	7¼					
		,, Löwenberg ..	0	10¾	2	0	0	4¾	0	8½					
		,, Hirschberg ..	1	0	1	2¼	0	6	0	8½					
			1	9½	2	0			1	3½					For 12 hours' work.
		,, Sagau ..	1	0	1	1¼			0	7¾					Piece-work.
			1	6	2	0		..							Common workmen.
		,, Sprottau ..	1	0	2	0	0	4¾	0	8½	0	4¾ to	0	8	Head engineer.
			1	6	2	1¼		..							For 10½ hours' work.
		,, Grünberg ..	0	9½	1	2½	0	4¾	0	8					Overseer.
13	Paper goods manufactory ..	Town of Nausalz ..	0	6½	1	2½		..							
			1	4¾	2	5		..							Common workmen.
					3	0		..							Cutters, bookbinders, printers, lithographers.
		,, Hirschberg ..	1	9	2	0		..							Overseer.
				..			0	6	1	0					Printers.
					1	3		..							Cutters.
			1	6	3	0		..							Lithographers.
		Circle of Laubau ..	1	0	2	6	0	6	1	0					
14	Ligneous fibre stuffs ..	,, Löwenberg ..	0	9¾	1	0		..							
		,, Hirschberg ..	0	10¾	2	0		..							
					2	0		..							Foreman.
15	Mines	,, Bunzlau ..			0	9			0	6					Common workmen.
					1	0		..							Drawers ("schlepper").
			1	1¼	1	3		..							Cutters.
					1	6		..							"Steiger."
		,, Jauer ..			0	8½		..							Cutters, at piece-work.
					1	0		..							10 hours' shift, 17¾d.
															Smelting works, 12 hours' shift.
			0	13¼	0	14½		..							Quarrymen and clearers.
			0	9½	1	2		..							"Steinputzer."

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages in British Currency.										Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).		
			s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
	Mines	Circle of Jauer ..	1	0 to	1	6		..				..	Smelters.
			0	9½	1	2½		..				..	Stamping-mill hands.
			1	0	1	6		..				..	Haulers.
		,, Bolkenhain ..	0	9½	1	0		..				..	Miners.
					0	10¾		..				..	
					1	0		..				..	
					1	1¼		..				..	
		,, Löwenberg ..	0	1¼ per hour				..				..	
		,, Laubau ..	1	2½	2	6		..				..	Cutters } Piece-work, 7 hours' shift.
			2	0	2	4		..				..	Drawers }
					1	6		..				..	Other workmen, errand men, &c., 8 hours' shift.
			1	1½	1	3		..			0	8½ to 0 9½	Common workmen.
		,, Landeschut ..	1	9½	1	10		..				..	Cutters.
			1	8½	1	10		..				..	Miners' apprentices }
			1	6¾	1	10		..				..	Drawers } 10 hours' shift.
			1	2½	1	3		..				..	Ditto for hauling }
		,, Hirschberg ..	0	9½	0	10		..				..	Hauler (shift wages, 9½d.)
					1	2		..				..	Assistants ("gehilfe").
					1	3		..				..	Apprentice cutters.
					1	3½		..				..	Piece-work cutting, 8 hours' shift.
16	Copper works	,, Jauer ..			1	6		..				..	Engineer.
17	Nickel works	,, Sagau ..	1	1¼	1	8½		..				..	
18	Iron works and engine-making works	Town of Neusalz ..			1	0	0	6 to 0 7½				..	
			0	8	1	0		..				..	Labourers.
			1	0	2	6		..				..	Smiths, locksmiths, carpenters.
			2	6	4	6		..				..	Engine builders, millwrights, &c.
		Circle of Sagau ..	0	7¼	1	0		..				..	
			0	8¼	1	3		..				..	Piece-work.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.								Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).				
			s.	d.		s.	d.		s.	d.	s.	d.		s.	d.	
	Iron works and engine-making works	Circle of Sprottau ..	0	8	to	1	9						..			Workmen of various classes.
			1	0		1	3						..			At the blast furnaces and refining fires.
			1	3		2	0						..	1	0	Moulders (exceptionally to 2s. 6d.).
						1	6						..			Gilders, stretchers ("ausstreicher").
						2	0						..			Enamellers.
			1	6		1	7½						..			Carpenters.
			1	0		1	7½						..			Smiths } Skilful workmen in full employment may earn 3s. to 4s. 6½d.
			1	3		2	0						..			Locksmiths }
						2	2						..			Turners }
		,, Lubau ..	0	10¾		1	2½		0	6	0	9½	..			Common workmen }
			0	9½		2	0						..			Overseers, &c. }
			1	3½		1	5						..			Carpenters }
			1	0		1	9						..			At the blast and melting furnaces } The best hands have to stop work from 4 to 6 weeks every year for repair of the furnaces and machinery, and during that time earn nothing.
						1	7¼						..			In the engine room }
			1	1¼		3	0		0	7¼	0	10¾	..			Enamel work }
			1	6		3	0						..			Carpenters and locksmiths }
			1	0		4	6						..			Modellers }
			2	6		3	0						..			Grinders }
		,, Hoyerswerda ..	1	0		1	3½						..			Labourers.
			1	3		1	6½						..			Locksmiths and carpenters }
			1	3		1	9						..			Modellers }
						1	6						..			Smiths } 10 hours' shift.
						2	0						..			Refiners' foreman }
		,, Sagau ..				1	6						..			Average wages.
19	Iron foundries and engine-building works (also boiler-making works)	Town of Glogau ..	1	0		3	0						..			
		,, Liegnitz ..	1	3		2	0						..			
		Circle of Rothenberg ..	1	6		2	6						..			
		,, Görlitz ..	1	6		2	0						..			

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.												Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).				
			s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	
20	Silver-ware manufactures ..	Town of Liegnitz ..	2	6	to 3	6	1	0	to 2	0	0	6	to 0	7¾	The best assistants earn 21*s.* to 30*s.* a-week. Ordinary workmen from 7*s.* 6*d.* upwards.
21	Turf cutting	Circle of Glogau ..	1	0	2	0	0	6	2	6					
22	Lime burning	,, Bolkenhain ..	0	9¾	1	0			1	2½					
			1	2½	1	7½		..				..			Piece-work.
		,, Jauer ..	0	9½	1	0		..				..			In winter.
			1	1¼	1	4¾		..				..			In summer.
		,, Görlitz ..	1	0	2	0		..				..			
			0	9¾	1	0	0	7½	0	8½		..			
			per hour				per hour								
		,, Schonau ..	1	5	1	6		..				..			12 hours a-day.
			1	0	1	2¾		..				..			In the winter months.
		,, Landshut ..	1	0	1	6		..				..			
		,, Löwenberg ..	1	0	1	2¾		..				..			On the average.
23	Brick-kiln	,, Bunzlau ..	0	9½	1	0		..					0	4¾	Common workmen.
			1	2½	1	7½		..				..			Brickmakers.
			1	4¾	2	0		..				..			
		,, Liegnitz ..	0	9½	1	2½		..				..			
			1	6	2	6	0	7½	0	9½	0	4¾	0	8½	Piece-work.
		,, Hirschberg ..	1	0	1	7¼	0	9	1	0		..			
					2	0		..				..			Average at piece-work.
		,, Lowenberg ..			2	0		..				..			Ditto.
		,, Görlitz ..	1	0	1	8½		..				..			
					2	0		..				..			Master brickmaker.
		,, Sagau ..	1	0	1	9	0	6	0	8½		..			
		,, Glogau ..	1	0	1	8½	0	4¾	1	2½		..			From 5½. to 14½*d.* the exception; 6½. to 1*s.* the rule.
		,, Jauer ..	1	0	1	9			0	8½				9	In summer.
					0	9		..				..			In winter.
		,, Landshut ..	0	10¾	2	0		..				..			

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.												Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).				
			s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	
24	*a.* Manufacture of articles in clay	Town of Laubau ..	0	8	to 2	6			0	7¼		..			Modeller's annual salary from 52*l.* 10*s.* to 105*l.*
		„ Glogau ..	1	0	1	1¼	0	7¼	to 0	10¾		..			Moulders by piece-work earn 2*s.* to 3*s.* and even 4*s.*, at 11 hours' work.
	b. Potteries	„ Bunzlau ..			1	0		..				..			Common workmen.
			2	0	2	6		..				..			Journeymen, with board.
			0	6	0	9		..				..			Ditto, without board.
		„ Nauenburg ..	1	0	1	6		..				..			Journeymen, with board.
			0	9½	1	0			0	6		..			Ditto, without board.
		Circle of Sagau ..	1	0	1	9		..				..			Common workmen.
				..				..			0	6	0	7¼	Journeymen.
				..				..				..			Apprentices, with board and lodging, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* a-week.
		„ Rothenburg ..	0	9	1	6		..				..			Journeymen.
			0	7¼	1	0		..				..			Common workmen.
25	Crockeryware manufactory .	„ Bunzlau ..	0	9	1	0			0	6		..			Ditto.
			1	0	1	9		..				..			Painters.
			1	0	2	0		..				..			Turners.
26	China manufactory .. (piece-work is preferred)	Circle of Sagau and Görlitz	1	3	1	6	0	6	0	7¼		..			Employed in preparatory work, mass beating, &c.
				..			0	8	1	0		..			Glazing girls.
				..				..			0	6	1	6	Apprentices.
			1	3	2	0		..				..			Burners.
			2	0	3	0		..				..			Turners (in some favourable instances up to 4*s.* 6*d.*).
								..							Head turner.
					4	0		..				..			Painting and gilding.
			1	6	2	0	0	6	0	9		..			Common workmen.
		„ Hirschberg ..			1	0			0	9½		..			Journeymen potters.
					2	0		..				..			Apprentices.
				..				..							

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.								Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).				
			s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
	China manufactures ..	Circle of Hirschberg ..		..				..			0	$7\frac{1}{4}$	0	$8\frac{1}{2}$	Turners.
					2	0		..				..			
27	Glass works*	Circle of Hirschberg ..		..			0	$4\frac{3}{4}$	0	8		..			Girls employed in polishing.
					1	0			0	6		..			Workmen of various classes.
			1	3 to	1	6		..				..			Stokers.
			1	6	2	6		..				..			Grinders. When trade is flourishing, good hands can earn 6*d.* a-day more.
				..			0	9	1	6		..			
					2	6		..				..			Melters.
			1	6	3	0		..				..			Painters and gilders. Clever hands can earn up to 30*s.* a-week; a painter's assistant, on the average from 15*s.* to 21*s.*
			2	6	5	0		..				..			Glassmakers. Exceptionally good workmen may earn, at some kinds of ware, up to 6*s.*
		,, Bunzlau ..			1	0	0	6	0	$7\frac{1}{2}$		..			Common workmen }
					1	3		..				..			Stokers } The glassmakers
			2	0	2	6		..				..			Bottle-makers } have to pay their
			2	6	3	0		..				..			Melters } own errand boys.
			4	0	4	6		..				..			Concave-glass makers }
			5	0	6	0		..				..			Plate-glass makers }
		,, Görlitz ..	1	0	1	6	0	6	0	9		..			Common workmen.
					1	9		..				..			Packers.
			1	6	1	9		..				..			Stokers } Assistants, from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 3*d.*
			2	0	2	3		..				..			Melters }
			3	$7\frac{1}{2}$	5	0		..				..			Glassmakers, deducting the cost of assistants, who get 2*s.* 6*d.* a-week, with board and lodging.

* The work is generally stopped for two months in the year on account of the glass ovens, &c., and the breakage of the glass-pots may occasion further stoppages. The glassmaker has to provide for the repair of his own tools.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.								Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).				
			d.		*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	
	Glassworks	Circle of Sagau ..			1	6	..		..				Melters.
					3	0	..		..				Glassmakers at piece-work.
		„ Landshut ..			2	6	..		..				Glassmakers who pay their—
				..			..				0	6	Carriers.
					1	9	..		..				Melters.
					1	2	..		..				Stokers.
28	Flour mills	Town of Lowenberg ..			0	10¾	..		..				Workmen.
			0	7½ to	1	0	..		..				Journeymen with half board.
		„ Grünberg ..		..			..		..				Journeymen with board and lodging, 5*s.* 9*d.* a-week.
					1	0	..		..				Firemen.
		„ Bunzlau ..	1	0	1	2½	..		..				Workmen.
			0	7½	0	9½	..		..				Journeymen } With board.
					1	4¾	..		..				Overseers }
		„ Sagau ..	0	9	0	10	..		..				Journeymen, board and lodging.
		„ Beuthen ..	0	9½	1	1¼	..				0	7½	Labourers.
			1	0	1	2¼	..		..				Boiler heater.
					1	4¼	..		..				Engineer, &c.
			1	2½	1	6	..		..				Journeymen.
		„ Hirschberg ..	1	6	2	6	..		..				Ditto.
		„ Liegnitz ..	1	9	2	0	..		..				Ditto.
		„ Sprottau ..	1	6	3	0	..		..				Ditto.
		Circle of Schonau ..	0	10¾	1	0	..		..				Overseer, with lodging.
					1	8½	..		..				Journeymen.
		„ Glogau ..	1	0	1	2½	..		..				
29	Alcohol works	Town of Glogau ..	1	0	1	2½	..		..				
		Circle of Glogau ..	0	9	1	3	0	3¾ to 0	8	..			
		„ Lüben ..	0	9	1	0	..		..				Quite exceptionally a minimum of from 7¼*d.* to 8½*d.* for men, and half for women; also exceptionally a maximum rate of 15*d.*

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.										Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).		
			s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
	Alcohol works	Circle of Lüben ..			1	6		..				..	In charge of the apparatus.
		,, Jauer ..	0	9½ to	1	0		..				..	Distillers, 22*l.* 10*s.* a-year with board.
		,, Liegnitz ..	0	9½	1	0		..				..	Workmen. The head distiller receives 7*l.* 10*s.* a-year in addition to a per-centage; a distiller, besides his wages, gets corn for bread, and lodging and firing.
		,, Sagau ..	0	10¾	1	1½			0	7¼		..	Workmen.
30	Starch manufactories ..	Town of Neusalz ..	0	9½	1	2½	0	7¼	0	8½		..	
		Circle of Glogau ..	0	9	1	0	0	6	0	7¼		..	
		,, Lüben ..	0	9	1	1½	0	4¾	0	6½		..	
					1	6		.				..	Overseer.
			0	9½ per hour				..				..	Workmen.
		,, Sagau ..	0	9½	1	0			0	6		..	
					1	6		..				..	Machinery department.
		,, Liegnitz ..	0	9½	1	2½	0	6	0	7¼		..	
		,, Sprottau ..	1	0	1	6	0	6	0	7¼		..	
31	Sugar manufactories ..	,, Liegnitz ..	0	7¼	1	6			0	6		..	
		,, Freystadt ..	0	8½	0	10¾	0	6	0	7¼		..	Shift of 12 hours.
		,, Glogau ..	0	9½	1	1½	0	4¾	0	6¾		..	
		,, Jauer ..			0	10¾			0	7¾		..	
32	Oil manufactories ..	Town of Sprottau ..	0	9	2	0		..				..	
		,, Glogau ..	0	10¾	1	0			0	8½		..	
		,, Jauer ..	1	0	1	3½		..				..	
		,, Liegnitz ..	1	3	1	6		..				..	
		,, Sagau ..	1	3	1	9		..				..	
		,, Laubau ..			1	4¼		..				..	
		Circle of Glogau ..	1	0	1	3			0	7¼		..	
		,, Grünberg ..			0	9½		..				..	
33	Breweries	Town of Glogau ..	1	0	1	6		..				..	
		,, Jauer ..			0	9		..				..	Journeymen, with board.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.										Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).		
			s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
	Breweries	Town of Jauer ..		..				..			..		Labourers, 1*s.* 1¼*d.*
		Circle of Glogau ..			0	7¼		..			..		Lodgings free.
					0	4½		..			..		Board and lodging.
		,, Lowenberg ..			0	6		..			..		
34	Fruit wine manufactories ..	Town of Hirschberg ..	0	9½	1	3½		..			..		
	Champagne ditto ..	,, Grünberg ..	1	0	1	3		..			..		
35	Soap and candle factory ..	,, Sprottau ..	1	0	2	0		..			..		
		,, Glogau ..			1	2½		..			..		
36	Gas works	,, Hirschberg ..	1	0	1	2¼		..			..		
		,, Glogau ..	1	0	1	2½		..			..		
		,, Sagau ..	1	3	1	6		..			..		Locksmiths, 45*l.* annual salary.
		,, Landeshut ..			1	4¾		..			..		
37	Tar works	Circle of Bunzlau ..	1	0	1	2½	0	6 to 0		8½	..		
38	Asphalt-roofing paper works	,, Sagau ..			0	10½		0		6½	..		
					1	1½		..			..		Piece-work.
39	Sealingwax and vermilion manufactory	Town of Hirschberg ..	1	0	1	9		..			..		
40	Chemical explosive substances	Circle of Sprottau ..			1	6			0	4½		0 2	Out of school hours.
		Town of Grünberg ..			1	0			0	7½	..		
41	Bone powder and chemical manure works	,, Glögau ..	0	8½	0	10¾	0	4¾	0	7¼	..		
		Circle of Hirschberg ..	0	9	1	6		..			..		
		,, Glogau ..	1	0	1	6		..			..		
		,, Görlitz ..	2	0	3	0		..			..		A workman can make, carry, and load from 50 to 80 centners of bone powder a-week, and receives 3*d.* the centner.
42	Tanneries	Town of Freystadt ..	1	0	1	3		..			..		Workmen.
			1	6	2	3		..			..		Journeymen.
		,, Glogau ..	1	1½	2	0		..			..		

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.										Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).		
			s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
	Tanneries	Town of Schonau ..	..	..	0	9	..	..	..	..	..	..	With board.
			1	7¼	2	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	Without board.
		,, Jauer ..	0	10¾	1	6	0	6 to	0	7¼	..	..	Workmen.
			1	6	2	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	Journeymen.
		,, Lowenberg ..	1	6	2	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	Ditto.
43	Glue manufacture ..	,, Glogau ..	1	0	1	2½	..	..	0	6	..	..	
44	Saw mills	,, Glogau ..	0	9½	1	1½	..	..	0	7¼	..	..	
		,, Bünzlau ..	..	..	1	1½	..	..	..	..	..	..	Ordinary workmen.
			..	..	1	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	Engine-man.
			..	..	2	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	Foreman cutter.
		,, Laubau ..	1	3	1	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	
		,, Landshut ..	1	6	2	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	
		,, Liegnitz ..	1	6	2	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	
		Circle of Lowenberg ..	1	2½	1	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	
		Town of Liegnitz ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
45	Wooden wares and toy manufactory	Circle of Hirschberg ..	..	..	0	9½	..	..	..	..	..	..	Ordinary workmen.
			..	..	..	..	0	6 to	1	0	..	..	For bandbox making, polishing, &c.
			1	0	2	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	Carpenters and turners.
		,, Lowenberg ..	..	..	0	9	..	..	..	..	..	..	Wood choppers.
			..	..	..	..	..	..	0	5½	..	..	Polishing girls.
			..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0	4¾	Apprentices.
			0	9	0	10½	..	..	..	..	..	..	Journeymen.
			..	..	1	4½	..	..	..	..	..	..	The master.
		,, Laubau ..	..	..	1	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	
			..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0	4	Apprentices.
		Town of Jauer ..	1	0	3	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	Carpenters } Piece-work.
			1	6	2	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	Turners } Piece-work.
			1	6	4	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	Carvers } Piece-work.
			1	0	1	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	Common workmen.

No.	Description of Works.	Town or Circle in which the Works are situated.	Daily Wages, in British Currency.										Observations.
			Men.				Women.				Young Persons (under 16).		
			s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
46	Clock manufactory ..	Town of Glogau ..	1	6 to	3	0		..			..		
		,, Lahn ..	1	0	3	0		..				0 7½	
47	Cigar manufactory ..	,, Liegnitz ..			1	3			0	6	..		
		,, Laubau ..			1	6			1	0	..		
		,, Sprottau ..	1	6	1	9	1	0 to	1	3	0 3	0 4½	Overseer, 11s. a-week; 11 at 11 hours' work a-day.
		,, Görlitz ..		to	4	0			0	8	..		
		,, Jauer ..		..			0	4¾	0	7½	..		
				..					0	9	..		Wrapping-leaf rolling women.
			0	10¾	2	0	0	7¼	1	3	..		Cigar makers.
48	Hat manufactory ..	,, Liegnitz ..	2	0	5	0	1	0	1	6	..		Journeymen hatmakers who are particularly good workmen, and when in full employment, earn as much as 45s. and even 48s. a-week.

APPENDIX III.

STATEMENT showing the relative Per-centage of the Expenditure of a Working Man's Family in the different Provinces of Prussia, the Subsistence, Clothing, and Lodging.

Provinces.	Government Districts, Circles, and Towns.	Per-centage of total Expenditure required for							
		Subsistence.		Clothing.		House-Rent.		Total Per-centage for Subsistence, Clothing, and House-Rent.	
1. Prussia	1. Government District of Gumbinnen—	Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.	
	The country	60 to	58·5	19·3 to	21·7	10·0	—	89·3 to	90·2
	Towns	65·2	—	13·0	—	7·8	—	86·0	—
	2. Government District of Königsberg—								
	The country	58·0	57·0	21·0 to	17·0	8·7 to	10·2	86·8	84·2
	Town of Königsberg	75·5	—	6·7	—	12·5	—	94·2	—
	3. Government District of Dantzic—								
	The country	70·5	66·2	16·4	20·0	6·5	8·0	9·3	94·2
	4. Government District of Marienwerder—								
	Towns	62·1	64·7	14·4	13·8	12·3	—	88·8	90·8
2. Posen	1. Government District of Bromberg—								
	The country	40·3	—	32·3	—	9·7	—	82·3	—
	2. Government District of Posen—								
	The country and small towns	67·4	57·0	13·5	15·5	9·0	7·9	89·9	80·4
3. Silesia	1. Government District of Liegnitz—								
	The country	72·7	56·5	5·8	15·2	8·7	10·0	87·2	81·7
	Town of Görlitz	62·5	62·9	11·3	12·0	20·0	19·9	93·8	94·8
	2. Government District of Breslau—								
	The country	75·7	57·0	8·1	17·7	8·1	9·1	91·9	83·8
	The manufacturing districts	64·0	54·2	16·0	19·7	11·2	9·8	91·2	83·7
	The small towns	72·0	59·4	11·2	19·8	8·4	12·5	91·6	91·7

Provinces.	Government Districts, Circles, and Towns.	Per-centage of total Expenditure required for							
		Subsistence.		Clothing.		House-Rent.		Total Per-centage for Subsistence, Clothing, and House-Rent.	
3. Silesia (*continued*) ..	3. Government District of Oppeln—	Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.	
	The country	74·0 to 73·0		11·6 to 13·7		5·8 to 7·1		91·4 to 93·8	
Pomerania	1. Government District of Köslin—								
	The country and small towns	60·0	62·5	11·9	12·6	14·3	10·9	86·2	86·0
	2. Government District of Stettin—								
	The country and small towns	60·0	58·3	16·3	—	7·3	16·4	83·6	91·0
5. Brandenburg ..	1. Government District of Potsdam—								
	The country and small towns	77·4	58·0	9·7	24·6	3·2	5·9	90·3	88·5
	2. Government District of Frankfort—								
	The country and small towns	65·0	69·9	14·2	9·7	9·3	7·5	88·5	87·1
6. Saxony	1. Government District of Magdeburg—								
	The country and small towns	67·3	55·2	14·7	23·6	96·0	8·5	91·6	87·3
	Town of Oschersleben	54·7	52·0	26·3	—	8·1	12·7	89·1	91·0
	Town of Magdeburg	60·0	—	15·0	—	12·7	—	87·7	—
	2. Government District of Merseburg—								
	The country and small towns	63·8	64·6	12·8	13·3	8·5	7·2	85·1	85·1
	3. Government District of Erfurt—								
	The country and small towns	73·2	57·4	0·1	14·0	6·5	11·0	89·5	82·4
	Town of Nordhausen	69·8	6·3	7·4	11·4	13·3	12·5	90·5	86·9
7. Westphalia ..	1. Government District of Minden—								
	The country and small towns	66·0	61·1	14·5	13·7	9·4	8·2	89·9	83·5
	2. Government District of Münster—								
	The country and small towns	60·7	54·5	12·1	15·2	9·7	13·6	82·5	83·3
	Town of Münster	62·8	60·0	11·3	13·3	14·8	16·9	88·9	90·2
	3. Government District of Arnsberg—								
	Circle and Town of Lippstart	59·1	56·0	17·8	17·9	8·5	10·7	85·4	84·6

Provinces.	Government Districts, Circles, and Towns.	Per-centage of total Expenditure required for							
		Subsistence.		Clothing.		House-Rent.		Total Per-centage for Subsistence, Clothing, and House-Rent.	
8. Rhineland	1. Government District of Düsseldorf—	Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.	
	Circles of Essen, northern	7·0	—	11·8	—	10·3	—	92·1	—
	„ southern	67·8	—	13·4	—	9·0	—	90·2	—
	Circle of Mettmann, manufacturing district ..	62·3	—	12·7	—	10·0	—	85·0	—
	Circle of Rees, towns	72·3	—	10·4	—	9·6	to 11·7	92·3	to 94·4
	„ country	71·8	—	11·2	—	8·0	—	91·0	—
	Town of Neuss, labourers	62·5	to 56·9	18·8	to 19·8	10·6	12·7	91·9	89·4
	„ artisans	53·4	47·1	23·6	24·5	11·8	17·0	88·8	88·6
	The country portions of the Government district	69·5	59·5	9·9	15·9	9·9	11·4	89·3	86·8
	2. Government District of Cologne—								
	Circle of Cologne	71·1	—	9·5	—	9·5	—	90·1	—
	Town of Deutz	73·5	—	8·2	—	12·2	—	93·9	—
	„ Cologne	64·4	—	15·1	—	11·1	—	90·6	—
	„ Bonn	70·0	—	7·7	—	15·0	—	92·7	—
	The country and small towns	69·4	62·0	10·7	14·0	10·6	9·5	90·7	85·5
	3. Government District of Aix-la-Chapelle—								
	The country and small towns	68·6	62·2	11·8	12·8	9·8	14·7	90·2	89·7
	The manufacturing districts of the circle of Eugen	..		..		7·5	8·3	7·5	8·3
	4. Government District of Coblenz—								
	The country and small towns	68·2	59·8	9·1	13·8	8·7	—	86·0	82·3
	5. Government District of Treves—								
	The country and small towns	63·6	52·8	13·9	19·2	10·9	10·3	88·4	82·3
	Town of Treves	52·4	—	19·0	—	13·3	—	84·7	—

APPENDIX IV.

AVERAGE Prices per scheffel (1·5 bushel) of the principal Cereals, &c., in each Province of Prussia, and in the whole Monarchy, during each of the Years 1816 to 1869.

In British Currency.

Cereals, &c.	Years.	Provinces.								Prussian Monarchy.	Difference between the Highest and Lowest Prices.
		Prussia.	Posen.	Brandenburg.	Pomerania.	Silesia.	Saxony.	Westphalia.	Rhineland.		
		s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Wheat	1816–20	7 6½	7 4	9 0¼	8 2¾	8 0	8 6	10 2¼	10 4½	8 8	3 0½
	1821–30	4 7	4 9	5 4¾	4 7	5 2¼	4 10	5 6¾	5 9¼	5 1¼	1 2¼
	1831–40	5 7⅛	5 6	5 10¾	5 8	5 2	5 4¾	6 3½	6 10¾	5 9¾	1 8¼
	1841–50	6 8½	6 7¼	6 11½	6 10½	6 6¼	6 7½	7 7½	8 2½	7 0½	1 8¼
	1851–60	8 4½	8 6¾	8 10¾	8 10¼	8 6¼	8 6¾	9 4½	9 8¼	8 10½	1 3½
	1861–69	8 2¾	7 11¼	8 4¾	8 7¾	7 11½	8 3¾	9 2¼	9 4½	8 7	1 5
	1816–60	6 5¾	6 5½	7 0½	6 8¼	6 6½	6 7	7 6½	7 11½	6 11	1 6
	1837–60	7 1½	7 5½	7 8¾	7 7¾	6 11	7 5	7 10¾	8 3½	7 6¾	1 2
	1816–69	6 10½	6 9½	7 5½	7 1¾	6 10¾	7 0½	8 0½	8 4½	7 4	1 7¼
Rye	1816–20	4 6¼	4 6½	6 0¼	5 4¾	5 5	6 7¼	7 11	8 1¾	6 1	3 7½
	1821–30	2 7¾	3 0¼	3 5¼	3 0	3 8	3 5¾	4 0½	4 3¼	3 5¾	1 7¼
	1831–40	3 4¼	3 5⅛	4 0	3 8½	3 6½	4 2	4 8¼	5 1¼	4 0¼	1 9
	1841–50	4 2½	4 5	4 7½	4 6¾	4 7½	4 11	5 7¾	6 1¼	4 11	1 10½
	1851–60	5 8¾	6 1¾	6 5¼	6 3½	6 5	6 10½	7 4¼	7 6½	6 7½	1 7¾
	1861–69	5 5	5 6¾	5 11½	6 0¼	5 9¾	6 5	6 10½	6 9	6 2	1 5½
	1816–60	4 0½	4 3½	4 9½	4 6	4 8	5 0⅛	5 8½	6 0¼	4 10¾	2 0
	1837–60	4 5½	4 9½	5 2½	5 0	5 0¾	5 8¼	5 10½	6 3½	5 4½	1 10
	1816–69	4 3¾	4 6¼	5 1	4 10	4 11	5 5	6 1¼	6 3¾	5 2½	2 0

Cereals, &c.	Years.	Provinces. Prussia.	Posen.	Brandenburg.	Pomerania.	Silesia.	Saxony.	Westphalia.	Rhineland.	Prussian Monarchy.	Difference between the Highest and Lowest Prices.
		s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
Barley	1816–20	3 1¾	3 3¼	4 8	3 9½	4 1	4 11	5 10	6 0	4 5½	2 10¼
	1821–30	1 11	2 3¾	2 7¾	2 1½	2 9½	2 7½	3 0	3 2¾	2 7½	1 3½
	1831–40	2 5¾	2 8½	3 0¼	2 8½	2 9	3 2¼	3 6¾	3 11¼	3 1	1 5½
	1841–50	3 2	3 5½	3 7¼	3 4	3 7	3 8¼	4 3½	4 7½	3 9½	1 5½
	1851–60	4 6½	4 10¾	5 0	4 9	5 0½	5 2	5 7¾	5 9	5 1½	1 2½
	1861–69	4 2¼	4 5½	4 8¾	4 8½	4 6¼	5 1¼	5 8½	5 7½	4 11½	1 6½
	1816–60	3 0½	3 4	3 8	3 3½	3 7½	3 9½	4 3¾	4 6¾	3 8¾	1 6¼
	1837–60	3 5	3 9¾	3 9¾	3 8½	4 0½	4 4	4 8	4 11¾	4 2	1 6¼
	1816–69	3 3	3 6¼	3 10	3 6¾	3 9½	4 1½	4 8¼	4 10½	4 0	1 7½
Oats	1816–20	2 4½	2 6	3 6	2 9½	3 0½	3 5	3 9	3 6½	3 1½	1 2
	1821–30	1 5½	1 9¼	2 1	1 8	2 1	1 1	2 1¾	2 1	1 11	0 7¼
	1831–40	1 9¾	2 1½	2 5¼	2 3½	2 0¼	2 3	2 5½	2 5¾	2 2½	0 8½
	1841–50	2 2½	2 5¼	2 7¾	2 5¼	2 5¼	2 6¼	2 10¼	2 10¼	2 6¾	0 7¾
	1851–60	3 1½	3 5¾	3 7	3 6	3 3½	3 5¼	3 9¼	3 7½	3 5¼	0 7¾
	1861–69	3 0½	3 2	3 5	3 4¼	3 0¾	3 4	3 10	3 6	3 4	0 9½
	1816–60	2 2	2 5½	2 9¼	2 5½	2 6¼	2 7¾	2 11	2 10	2 7	0 9
	1837–60	2 3¼	2 9¼	2 11	2 7½	2 7¼	2 9	2 9¼	2 9	2 8	0 7½
	1816–69	2 4	2 7	2 11½	2 7¾	2 7¾	2 10	3 1½	3 0	2 9	0 8½
Potatoes	1816–20	1 5¼	1 5	1 11⅜	1 6½	1 7¼	2 3½	2 7	2 7¼	1 11½	1 2
	1821–30	1 0	1 0½	1 2½	0 11¼	1 4¼	1 5½	1 4½	1 5	1 3	0 6¼
	1831–40	1 1½	1 1½	1 2¾	1 1¼	1 3¼	1 6	1 6	1 6	1 3¾	0 4½
	1841–50	1 7	1 4¾	1 5¼	1 7¼	1 8½	1 8	2 1	2 1	1 8¼	0 8¼
	1851–60	2 3½	1 11¼	2 0	2 1½	2 2	2 2½	2 11	2 11½	2 4¼	1 0
	1861–69	2 0½	1 6¼	1 10¼	1 11½	1 10	2 1½	2 8¼	2 8½	2 2½	1 4¼
	1816–60	1 6	1 4¾	1 6¼	1 5½	1 7	1 9¼	2 0½	2 0½	1 8¼	0 7½
	1837–60	1 3½	1 3¼	1 5¾	1 7¼	1 7½	1 6¼	2 5	2 0	1 8	1 1¾
	1816–69	1 7	1 5	1 7½	1 6½	1 8	1 10¼	2 3½	2 2½	1 7¼	0 10½

APPENDIX V.

AVERAGE PRICES of the principal Articles of Food for Man and Beast, in each Province of the Prussian Monarchy, in the Years 1860 to 1869.

In British Currency.

N.B. The prices are reckoned—

1. For Wheat, Rye, Barley, Oats, Peas, and Potatoes, by the scheffel (1·5 bushel).
2. For Butter, Tallow, Beef, and Pork, by the lb. (Prussian).
3. For Hay, by the centner (cwt.)
4. For Straw, by the shock (60 trusses of 20 lbs.)

Articles of Food, &c.	Years.	Provinces.								The Monarchy.	Difference between the Highest and Lowest Prices.
		Prussia.	Posen.	Brandenburg.	Pomerania.	Silesia.	Saxony.	Westphalia.	Rhineland.		
		s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Wheat	1860	8 3½	7 10¾	8 10	8 2	8 1	8 8	9 4½	9 8½	8 9½	1 10¾
	1861	8 8½	8 3½	9 6	9 6½	8 2¾	10 1½	10 0	10 6¾	9 3½	2 3¼
	1862	8 6½	8 2½	8 9½	9 1¾	8 1¼	8 7	9 8½	9 11	8 11	1 9¾
	1863	7 2	7 1½	7 6½	7 7½	7 3	7 5½	8 3¼	8 7½	7 8½	1 5½
	1864	5 9	6 0½	6 5½	6 2¾	6 5¼	6 6½	7 7½	7 8½	6 8	1 11½
	1865	6 6¾	6 3½	7 3½	6 9½	6 4	6 8¼	7 2¾	7 5	6 10	1 2
	1866	7 10	7 8½	8 2¾	8 1¾	7 9½	7 10½	8 9½	8 10	8 2¾	1 1½
	1867	10 7½	10 0¼	10 5½	10 5½	9 10½	10 8	11 4	11 9	10 10	1 10½
	1868	10 6½	10 0	10 2	10 9¼	9 10¼	10 1½	11 0½	10 10¾	10 5¾	1 2½
	1869	8 2½	7 8½	7 10	8 2¾	7 9¼	7 7	8 6¾	8 5¾	8 1¼	0 11
	Average	8 2¾	7 11½	8 5¼	8 7	7 11½	8 4	9 2½	9 4¾	8 7½	1 5½

Articles of Food, &c.	Years.	Provinces.								The Monarchy.	Difference between the Highest and Lowest Prices.
		Prussia.	Posen.	Brandenburg.	Pomerania.	Silesia.	Saxony.	Westphalia.	Rhineland.		
		s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Rye	1860	5 0¼	5 6¼	6 0	5 9¾	5 8¼	6 6	6 10¾	7 0	6 1¾	1 11¾
	1861	5 0	5 5¼	5 7	5 9	5 9¼	6 2	7 0	7 4½	6 2	2 4½
	1862	5 4	5 5	5 10½	6 2¾	5 7	6 9	7 6	7 5¼	6 4½	2 2
	1863	4 6½	4 9	5 2¼	5 1	4 10¾	5 9	6 3½	6 1¾	5 5¼	1 9
	1864	3 6¼	3 10	4 2½	4 1¾	4 3½	4 8	5 5	5 4¼	4 6½	1 8¾
	1865	4 5½	4 6¼	5 0½	5 1½	4 8½	5 4¾	5 4½	5 3¼	5 0	0 11½
	1866	5 2	5 3½	6 0½	5 10	5 8¼	6 3¼	6 2½	6 2½	5 10	1 1¼
	1867	7 2½	7 6½	7 10	7 10½	7 6½	8 4¼	8 5	8 3¼	7 10¾	1 1¾
	1868	7 6½	7 4	7 8½	7 9¼	7 5¾	8 0¼	8 6¾	8 1½	7 10¼	1 2¾
	1869	6 0	6 11	6 4½	6 3½	6 2	6 7¼	7 2½	6 7½	6 5¼	1 2½
	Average	5 4½	5 6¾	6 0	6 0	5 9½	6 5¼	6 10½	6 9½	6 2	1 6
Barley . ..	1860	4 1¾	4 7¼	5 1	4 7¼	4 7¾	5 4¼	5 10	5 9½	5 9¼	1 9¼
	1861	3 9½	4 4¼	4 9½	4 6	4 7¼	4 10¾	5 10½	5 11¼	4 11½	2 1¾
	1862	3 9½	4 0	4 2½	4 5¾	3 10	4 7¾	5 8½	5 5	4 7½	1 11
	1863	3 6¼	3 9	4 0¾	3 9	3 9¾	4 5	5 1½	4 8¾	4 3	1 7¼
	1864	2 11¼	3 5	3 8¼	3 5¾	3 8½	4 0¼	4 11½	4 8½	3 11½	2 0¼
	1865	3 3¼	3 6¾	4 0¼	3 11	3 6¾	4 3¼	4 8	4 7	4 0¼	1 4¾
	1866	4 0½	4 3½	4 8½	4 8¼	4 4½	5 2	5 4¾	5 8	4 10	1 7½
	1867	5 4½	5 8¾	5 8	6 0½	5 7½	6 3½	6 9	6 8¼	6 1	1 4½
	1868	6 0½	5 11¾	5 10¼	6 2	5 10¼	6 3½	6 8½	6 10½	6 3½	1 0¼
	1869	4 9¾	5 2½	5 5¾	5 3	5 2	5 11½	6 2¾	5 11¼	5 6¼	1 5
	Average	4 2¼	4 5¾	4 9	4 8½	4 6¼	5 1¾	5 8¾	5 7½	4 11½	1 6½
Oats	1860	2 8½	2 10½	3 5	3 3½	2 11½	3 4¾	3 8¼	3 6	3 3	1 0
	1861	2 6	2 8¾	3 0	3 0¾	2 8	3 0	3 6	3 5¾	3 0½	1 9
	1862	2 9¼	2 9	2 11¾	3 4	2 5	2 11½	3 7	3 3	3 0	1 2
	1863	2 6¾	2 9½	2 11½	2 10½	2 9	2 10	3 3½	2 10	2 10¼	0 8½
	1864	2 4	2 7¾	2 11	2 8¾	2 10	2 11	3 6¼	3 2¼	2 11¾	1 2¼
	1865	2 6¾	2 9	3 2½	3 1	2 7¾	3 1½	3 4½	3 1¾	3 0	0 9
	1866	2 11	3 0	3 4½	3 3	2 10½	3 4	4 1	3 7½	3 4	1 3¼

Articles of Food, &c.	Years.	Provinces.								The Monarchy.	Difference between the Highest and Lowest Prices.
		Prussia.	Posen.	Brandenburg.	Pomerania.	Silesia.	Saxony.	Westphalia.	Rhineland.		
		s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Oats—*continued*	1867	3 9¼	4 0	3 10¾	4 1¼	3 6	3 8½	4 3	3 11¼	3 10¾	0 9
	1868	4 2½	4 2	4 3¾	4 3½	3 11¼	4 0½	4 5½	4 2	4 2¼	0 6½
	1869	3 6½	3 8	3 11½	3 8¼	3 9¼	4 0	4 4½	3 9½	3 10	0 10½
	Average	3 0	3 1½	3 4¾	3 4¼	3 0½	3 4	3 9¾	3 6	3 4	0 9¾
Peas	1860	5 8	5 8½	7 1¾	6 7½	6 5½	8 1¼	9 2	9 3	7 5½	3 7
	1861	5 7¼	5 2¾	6 7	6 3½	6 7½	7 11¼	9 6½	9 4½	7 5½	4 3¾
	1862	5 7¼	5 3	6 9¼	6 7¼	5 9½	7 10¼	9 7	9 2½	7 4½	4 4¼
	1863	5 0	4 9½	6 5	5 4½	5 6	7 0¾	7 9½	7 6½	6 3¾	3 0
	1864	4 4	4 9¼	6 1¾	4 9½	5 10	6 4½	7 2½	7 5½	6 4	3 1½
	1865	5 4	5 9¼	6 9¼	5 10½	6 7¾	7 4	7 3½	8 3¼	6 9	2 11½
	1866	5 10¼	5 10¾	7 4½	6 10½	6 8½	8 3	8 7½	9 5½	7 5¾	3 6¾
	1867	7 5½	7 3	8 5¼	7 9	7 6	8 10	9 10	10 3½	8 4	3 0½
	1868	8 1	7 1¼	9 3½	8 3½	7 6¾	9 3½	10 3	9 6	8 9	3 1½
	1869	6 4½	6 4½	8 0¾	6 9	7 1	8 0¾	9 1½	9 5	7 9¼	3 0½
	Average	5 11¼	5 8½	7 3½	6 6¼	6 7	7 10¾	8 10	8 11¾	7 4¾	3 1¾
Potatoes . ..	1860	1 9½	1 7	1 9	1 10	1 9¾	1 10	3 0½	3 2½	2 3¼	1 5¼
	1861	2 1½	1 2¼	1 10¼	2 4	2 1	2 2	3 8½	3 7½	2 7½	2 0¾
	1862	2 0	1 3½	1 9¼	2 3	1 6½	2 2½	3 4½	3 0½	2 4	2 1
	1863	1 8¾	1 3¾	1 6¾	1 5½	1 8½	2 0½	2 5	2 3¼	1 11	1 1¾
	1864	1 7½	1 5½	1 10¾	1 5¾	1 11½	1 8¾	2 5	2 5¼	2 0	0 11
	1865	1 11	1 3	1 7	1 8½	1 6¾	1 10¼	2 5¼	2 3	1 11	1 2¼
	1866	1 10½	1 3¾	1 8¼	1 9	1 7	1 10½	2 5	2 3¾	1 11½	1 2¼
	1867	2 6½	2 0½	2 3	2 3	2 2¼	2 6¾	3 7¾	3 6½	2 9¼	1 7½
	1868	2 8½	1 10	2 2¾	2 4	2 0½	2 3	2 11½	2 8	2 5¼	1 1½
	1869	1 10½	1 5½	2 0½	1 10	1 9¼	2 2	2 6½	2 2¾	2 0½	1 1¼
	Average	2 0¼	1 6¾	1 10½	1 11	1 10	2 1	2 10¾	2 9	2 2¾	1 4
Butter	1860	0 7½	0 8¼	0 9¾	0 9¼	0 7½	0 9½	0 8¼	0 8¼	0 8½	0 2¼
	1861	0 8¾	0 9½	0 10½	0 10¼	0 9¼	0 10¼	0 9½	0 10½	0 9¾	0 1¾
	1862	0 9¼	0 9¾	0 11¼	0 10½	0 9	0 10¾	0 10	0 10¾	0 10	0 2

Articles of Food, &c.	Years.	Provinces.								The Monarchy.	Difference between the Highest and Lowest Prices.
		Prussia.	Posen.	Brandenburg.	Pomerania.	Silesia.	Saxony.	Westphalia.	Rhineland.		
		s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Butter—*continued*	1863	0 9¼	0 10	0 11	0 10½	0 9½	0 10½	0 9¼	0 10¼	0 9¾	0 1½
	1864	0 9	0 10¼	0 11¼	0 10½	0 10¼	0 10¾	0 10	0 11	0 10¼	0 2¼
	1865	0 9¾	0 10½	1 0	0 11¼	0 10½	1 0	0 10½	1 0	0 11	0 2½
	1866	0 9¼	0 10½	1 0	0 11¼	0 10¼	1 1	0 10¼	0 10¾	0 10½	0 3¾
	1867	0 9¼	0 10½	0 11½	0 11	0 10	0 11½	0 10½	0 10¾	0 10½	0 2½
	1868	0 11	0 10¾	1 0¼	1 0	0 11	1 0½	0 11	1 0	0 11¼	0 1¾
	1869	0 10	0 10¾	1 0½	0 11½	0 11	1 0½	0 11½	1 0½	1 0	0 2½
	Average	0 9¼	0 10	0 11½	0 10¾	0 9¾	0 11¼	0 10	0 11	0 10½	0 1¾
Tallow . ..	1860	0 5¾	0 6¾	0 7¾	0 5¾	0 5¾	0 8¾	0 6¾	0 6¾	0 6¾	0 2¾
	1861	0 6	0 7	0 7¾	0 5¾	0 5½	0 8¼	0 7	0 7¾	0 6¾	0 2¼
	1862	0 6¼	0 7¼	0 7½	0 5¾	0 5½	0 8½	0 7	0 6¾	0 6¾	0 2½
	1863	0 6¼	0 7	0 7½	0 5¾	0 5¾	0 8	0 6¾	0 6¾	0 6¾	0 2¼
	1864	0 6	0 6¾	0 7	0 5	0 5½	0 7¾	0 6½	0 6½	0 6½	0 1¾
	1865	0 5½	0 6	0 7¼	0 4½	0 5¾	0 8	0 6½	0 6½	0 6½	0 2¾
	1866	0 5½	0 5½	0 7	0 4½	0 5	0 7¾	0 6¾	0 6¾	0 6	0 2¼
	1867	0 6¼	0 5½	0 7	0 4¾	0 5	0 8	0 6¾	0 6¼	0 6¼	0 3
	1868	0 6½	0 6	0 7¾	0 5	0 5½	0 8	0 6¾	0 6½	0 6½	0 3
	1869	0 6½	0 6	0 7½	0 5	0 6¼	0 8¼	0 7	0 6¾	0 6¾	0 3¼
	Average	0 6	0 6½	0 7¼	0 5¾	0 5½	0 8	0 6¾	0 6¾	0 6¾	0 3
Beef	1860	0 3¼	0 3¾	0 4½	0 4	0 4¼	0 5¼	0 5	0 6	0 4½	0 2¾
	1861	0 4	0 4¼	0 5	0 4¼	0 4¼	0 5½	0 5¼	0 6	0 5	0 2
	1862	0 4¼	0 4½	0 5¼	0 4½	0 4½	0 5½	0 5½	0 6	0 5	0 1¾
	1863	0 4¼	0 4½	0 5	0 4½	0 4½	0 5½	0 5¼	0 6	0 5	0 1¾
	1864	0 4	0 4	0 5	0 4	0 4½	0 5½	0 5	0 6	0 4¾	0 2
	1865	0 4	0 4	0 5	0 4¼	0 4½	0 5¼	0 5	0 6	0 5	0 2
	1866	0 4¼	0 4¼	0 5½	0 4½	0 4½	0 6	0 5½	0 6¼	0 5	0 4¾
	1867	0 4½	0 4½	0 5½	0 4¾	0 4¾	0 6¼	0 6	0 6½	0 5½	0 4¾
	1868	0 5	0 4¾	0 6	0 5¼	0 5¼	0 6	0 6	0 6¾	0 5½	0 2
	1869	0 4¾	0 5¼	0 6	0 5½	0 5½	0 6	0 6	0 6¾	0 5½	0 2
	Average	0 4	0 4¼	0 5¼	0 4½	0 4½	0 5½	0 5½	0 6¼	0 5	0 2¼

Articles of Food, &c.	Years.	Provinces.														The Monarchy.		Difference between the Highest and Lowest Prices.	
		Prussia.		Posen.		Brandenburg.		Pomerania.		Silesia.		Saxony.		Westphalia.		Rhineland.					
		s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Pork	1863	0	4¼	0	4¾	0	5¼	0	5¼	0	5	0	5¾	0	6	0	6¾	0	5½	0	2¼
	1861	0	5½	0	5½	0	5¾	0	6	0	5½	0	6	0	6½	0	7	0	6	0	1½
	1862	0	5½	0	5½	0	6¼	0	6½	0	5¾	0	6¼	0	6½	0	7	0	6¼	0	1½
	1863	0	4½	0	5½	0	6	0	6	0	5¾	0	6	0	6½	0	6¾	0	6	0	1¼
	1864	0	4¼	0	5	0	5½	0	5¼	0	5½	0	5¾	0	5¾	0	6¼	0	5½	0	2
	1865	0	4¾	0	5	0	5½	0	5½	0	5½	0	5¾	0	5½	0	6½	0	5½	0	1½
	1866	0	5½	0	5½	0	6	0	6¼	0	5¾	0	5¾	0	6	0	7	0	6	0	1¼
	1867	0	6	0	6	0	6½	0	6¾	0	6	0	6¼	0	6¾	0	7¼	0	6½	0	1¼
	1868	0	6½	0	6½	0	6¾	0	7¼	0	6½	0	6¾	0	7	0	7¾	0	7	0	1¼
	1869	0	6¼	0	6½	0	7	0	7¼	0	6½	0	6¾	0	7¼	0	7½	0	7	0	1¼
	Average	0	5½	0	5½	0	6	0	6¼	0	5¾	0	6¼	0	6¼	0	7	0	6	0	1½
Hay	1860	2	0½	2	1¼	2	1	2	3	2	0½	2	6¾	2	1	2	8	2	3	0	7½
	1861	1	11	1	11	2	3½	1	10¼	2	2	2	7¾	2	4¾	3	0¾	2	4¼	1	2½
	1862	2	0¾	1	10	2	1¼	2	0	2	0	2	10¾	2	4¾	3	0½	2	4¼	1	2½
	1863	2	5	2	6	2	5¾	2	2½	3	2½	3	2¼	2	7¼	3	0½	2	9¼	1	0
	1864	2	8	3	0	3	2½	2	6¾	3	8	3	10½	3	5½	4	1	3	5	1	6¼
	1865	2	10¼	3	2¼	3	7½	3	3½	3	7¼	4	9½	3	11	4	10	3	10	1	11¾
	1866	2	7½	2	9	3	2	2	9	3	2	4	0½	3	5½	3	11¼	3	3½	1	5
	1867	2	9½	2	6	2	8¼	2	0	2	6½	3	3	2	10	3	0	2	11¼	1	3
	1868	2	9½	2	5	2	7	1	9	3	0¾	3	7½	3	0	3	1¾	2	10¾	1	10¾
	1869	2	3¾	2	7¼	2	9¼	1	8½	3	6	3	10¼	3	8¾	3	10½	3	2½	2	2¼
	Average	2	5½	2	5¾	2	8½	2	3	2	11	3	5½	3	0	3	5½	2	11	1	2¾
Straw	1860	17	0	16	6¾	18	5	24	3¾	14	3¾	15	11	23	7¾	20	9¾	18	9¼	10	0
	1861	15	4½	15	7	20	6	18	6¾	16	1¾	17	2¾	23	0¾	25	11	19	5¾	10	5¼
	1862	16	3	14	11	18	2½	18	11	15	1¾	19	6½	22	8½	24	11	19	3½	10	0
	1863	17	3¾	17	3¾	19	5½	19	11½	14	9	20	9½	24	6¼	24	9¾	20	2¼	10	0¼
	1864	16	5¾	18	0¼	22	11	21	9¼	16	5¼	17	9¾	26	4	24	10½	20	8½	9	8¾
	1865	20	5¾	24	3	34	2	32	2½	21	5	29	3½	30	0½	31	0	27	0¾	13	6¾
	1866	23	9½	23	9½	32	5¾	34	2¾	22	9¾	31	0	32	9½	32	1¼	28	6½	11	5
	1867	18	8	17	3½	24	6½	20	3	16	1	21	9	25	5	23	0½	20	9½	9	4
	1868	21	4	18	0½	24	11½	23	2	19	0	27	2¾	28	2	26	6¾	23	7¾	10	1½
	1869	20	8¼	20	8¼	27	5	22	0	24	5¼	25	2½	34	6¾	29	9½	26	2½	13	10¾
	Average	18	9	18	7¾	24	3½	23	6½	18	0½	22	7	27	1½	26	4½	25	5¾	9	1½

Appendix VI.

Average Prices of the principal Articles of Food, Fodder, &c., in the Chief Market Towns of Prussia, in 1869.

In British Currency.

Provinces. / Market Towns.	Wheat, Per scheffel.	Rye, Per scheffel.	Barley, Per scheffel.	Oats, Per scheffel.	Peas, Per scheffel.	Potatoes, Per scheffel.	Butter, Per lb.	Tallow (raw), Per lb.	Beef, Per lb.	Pork, Per lb.	Hay, Per cwt.	Straw, Per "schock."
Province of Prussia—	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
1. Königsberg	8 1	6 1	5 0	3 8	6 9	2 3	0 11	..	0 6	0 6½	2 0¼	23 2½
2. Memel	9 0	6 9½	5 5¼	3 6¾	7 10¾	2 7½	0 10	0 6	0 5	0 6¼	1 6¼	16 0
3. Tilsit	8 4	6 2¼	4 7¾	3 3¾	6 2¼	2 0½	0 7¾	0 4¾	0 4	0 6	2 6	19 0
4. Insterberg	8 3½	6 2	4 9	3 2¾	6 2¾	1 11¼	0 9¾	0 6¼	0 3	0 5¼	2 0½	22 8
5. Braunsberg	8 2½	6 0	4 7¾	3 4¼	6 1¾	1 9¼	0 9½	0 7¼	0 4½	0 6¼	2 3¾	21 0
6. Raestenburg	8 1½	6 1½	5 2	4 0	6 6	2 1½	0 9	0 8¾	0 3¾	0 5	2 5	23 9
7. Neidenburg	8 2¾	5 1¾	4 0	3 0½	5 7	1 3	0 7½	..	0 3½	0 5¾	3 0	25 6
8. Danzig	8 3	6 2	5 1¾	3 6¼	6 10½	1 9½	0 11¼	0 7	0 6¾	0 7	2 6	20 9½
9. Elbing	8 1	6 11¼	5 0	3 4	6 4½	2 1	0 10½	0 7	0 5	0 6¾	2 3¾	17 11¼
10. Konitz	..	5 7¾	4 4¾	3 2½	5 9¼	1 5¾	0 9½	0 7¼	0 4¾	0 7	2 4¾	21 0
11. Gaudlenz	7 9¼	5 9	4 8	3 8⅔	5 9¾	1 6¾	0 9¾	0 7¼	0 4¾	0 6	1 11¼	14 9¾
12. Kulm	8 0	5 11	4 8½	3 11⅓	6 0	1 6	0 9½	0 4¾	0 4½	0 6⅓	2 3¾	16 1¼
13. Thorn	8 3¾	6 1¾	4 1¾	4 1¼	6 6½	1 9	1 0½	0 6½	0 5	0 7	3 1	24 11⅓
Province of Posen—												
1. Posen	7 4	5 9	5 4½	3 5½	6 1½	1 3¾	0 11	..	0 6¼	0 7¼	2 11	21 1¼
2. Branberg	7 11	5 10½	4 10¼	3 8¼	6 2½	1 7¼	0 10	0 7½	0 5½	0 6½	2 2¾	21 7½
3. Krotoschin	7 1¼	5 5½	4 8	3 4½	6 0½	1 2¾	0 10½	..	0 4¾	0 6	2 2½	19 2½
4. Fraustadt	8 0¼	6 1¾	5 6	3 10½	6 7¼	1 6¾	1 0	0 6	0 4¾	0 6½	3 2¼	20 0¾

Provinces. / Market Towns.	Wheat, Per scheffel.	Rye, Per scheffel.	Barley, Per scheffel.	Oats, Per scheffel.	Peas, Per scheffel.	Potatoes, Per scheffel.	Butter, Per lb.	Tallow (raw), Per lb.	Beef, Per lb.	Pork, Per lb.	Hay, Per cwt.	Straw, Per "schock."
Province of Posen, *continued*—	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
5. Gnesen	8 2	6 3½	5 5½	4 0½	6 7	1 5	0 11	0 6	0 6¼	0 6½	2 6	24 9¼
6. Rawitsch	7 9¼	6 0½	5 3	3 8½	6 4¼	1 7	..	..	0 4½	0 6½	3 2½	21 5
7. Lissa	7 11¼	6 1	5 3½	3 8	6 1½	1 7¼	0 11¾	..	0 4¾	0 6¾	2 7¼	19 8
8. Kampen	7 8¾	5 8½	5 3½	3 5¼	7 0	1 3½	0 9	0 4¾	0 4¼	0 6	2 2	17 9½
Province of Brandenburg—												
1. Berlin	8 2	6 6¼	5 6½	4 0	9 6½	2 2½	1 6	..	0 6¼	0 7¼	2 8¼	31 3¾
2. Brandenburg	7 4¼	6 6¼	5 1½	4 1¾	..	1 8½	1 7¼	0 7¼	0 6	0 6¾	2 2¾	25 3¼
3. Kottbus	8 6	6 6	5 9¼	4 0½	9 3	2 5¼	1 8¼	0 7	0 5¾	0 6½	3 5¼	27 7¼
4. Frankfort	7 8	6 3¼	5 6½	4 0	6 10¾	2 0¼	1 7½	0 6¾	0 7	0 7½	2 9	26 10¼
5. Lansberg	7 10	6 1	5 5¼	3 8	6 7½	1 10¼	1 0½	0 9½	0 5½	0 7	2 9	26 0
Province of Pomerania—												
1. Stettin	8 4½	6 7	5 8¼	3 11¼	7 0¾	1 11¼	1 1¼	0 3¾	0 5½	0 7¼	1 8½	21 1¼
2. Stralsund	7 8½	6 0	5 0	3 4¾	6 5¾	2 4¾	1 0¼	0 3¾	0 6	0 7¾	1 10½	24 11
3. Kolberg	8 7	6 4½	5 3¼	4 0	6 5½	1 7¼	0 10¼	0 3½	0 5½	0 7¾	1 8½	18 10½
4. Anklam	8 3	6 3¾	5 2½	3 6¾	7 0¼	1 9½	1 0¼	0 6¼	0 6	0 7¼	1 1¼	20 3
5. Stolz	8 3¼	6 3½	5 0½	3 6½	6 8½	1 6	0 9¾	0 7¼	0 4½	0 6½	2 0¾	24 7½
Province of Silesia—												
1. Breslau	7 6¾	6 0	5 0¾	3 0½	7 5¼	2 0¼	0 11¾	..	0 5½	0 6½	3 3	27 10¾
2. Grünberg	7 10½	6 3	6 3	3 11¾	7 0	2 1½	0 11¼	0 6½	0 4¼	0 6½	2 10¾	24 1½
3. Glogau	7 6	6 1¾	5 1½	3 9½	6 4	1 5	0 8¾	0 7¼	0 4¾	0 6¾	3 4	22 2½
4. Liegnitz	7 7¼	6 2¾	5 3½	3 7	6 7½	1 8	0 11	..	0 5¾	0 6¾	3 3	23 6
5. Görlitz	8 6½	6 5½	5 5¾	3 10	7 9½	2 0½	1 0	0 7	0 5¼	0 7	3 7½	27 2¼
6. Hirschberg	8 9½	6 9½	5 7¾	3 7½	6 10¼	2 4¾	0 10¾	0 6½	0 4¾	0 6	3 5	28 4
7. Schweidnitz	8 0¾	6 2½	4 11½	3 7¾	6 10	2 0	1 0¼	0 3½	0 5	0 6¾	4 1	26 3
8. Frankenstein	7 9¾	6 2¾	4 10	3 9¼	6 11	1 8¾	0 11	0 5¼	0 5¼	0 6¾	3 9	23 1
9. Glatz	8 2¾	6 4¼	4 10¼	3 8¼	7 8	1 9¼	1 0	0 8½	0 5½	0 6¾	4 4	26 4¼
10. Neisse	8 2¼	6 2¾	5 0	3 8¾	9 0	1 6¼	0 11	0 7¼	0 5½	0 7	4 0	23 10¼

Provinces. / Market Towns.	Wheat, Per scheffel.	Rye, Per scheffel.	Barley, Per scheffel.	Oats, Per scheffel.	Peas, Per scheffel.	Potatoes, Per scheffel.	Butter, Per lb.	Tallow (raw), Per lb.	Beef, Per lb.	Pork, Per lb.	Hay, Per cwt.	Straw, Per "schock."
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Province of Silesia, *continued*—												
11. Oppeln	7 6½	5 10	4 11½	3 4½	7 1	1 6½	0 11¼	0 5	0 4½	0 6	3 4	20 0½
12. Leobschutz	7 7	5 11	4 10½	3 5½	6 2½	1 5½	0 8½	..	0 4½	0 6	3 3	21 10
13. Ratibor	7 2½	5 9½	4 9½	3 6½	6 2	1 1½	0 10½	0 6	0 5½	0 5½	3 0½	22 11½
Province of Saxony—												
1. Magdeburg	7 7½	6 8	6 4½	4 2½	8 11½	2 2	1 1	0 8½	0 7½	0 7½	3 7½	25 0½
2. Stendal	7 7½	6 6½	5 9½	4 1½	8 1	1 10	1 1½	0 5½	0 5½	0 6½	3 2	26 7½
3. Halberstadt ..	7 9	6 10¾	6 0½	4 3	8 0½	1 10½	1 1½	0 7½	0 6½	0 7½	3 10½	21 11
4. Nordhausen ..	7 7½	6 6	5 11	3 8	6 8½	2 2	1 0	0 7½	0 5½	0 7½	3 1	19 8½
5. Mühlhausen ..	7 8¾	6 8	6 1½	3 11	7 0	2 0	1 0	0 8¾	0 6	0 6½	4 1½	25 0
6. Erfurt	7 7½	6 9	6 2½	3 10½	8 3½	2 6½	1 0	0 10½	0 6	0 7½	4 0	28 4½
7. Halle	7 8	6 7½	5 7½	4 0	8 11½	2 4½	1 1½	0 7½	0 6½	0 6	4 0	25 1½
8. Torgau	7 8½	6 5	5 8	3 11	8 6	2 4½	0 11½	0 8½	0 6	0 6½	4 4½	29 10
Province of Westphalia—												
1. Münster	8 4½	7 0½	6 6½	4 4½	9 2½	2 10½	0 10	0 7	0 5½	0 6	3 5½	31 7½
2. Dorsten	8 8¾	7 3½	6 6	4 11½	9 9	2 7½	0 9½	0 7½	0 6	0 7½	4 7	35 10
3. Haltern	8 9½	7 3½	6 7	4 10	11 5½	2 5½	0 10½	..	0 5½	0 7½	4 3	35 9
4. Minden	8 4	6 9½	5 11½	4 6½	8 4½	1 11½	0 10½	0 8	0 6	0 7	2 3	26 7½
5. Paderborn ..	8 1½	6 7½	5 8	4 0	9 4½	1 9¾	1 0½	0 7½	0 5½	0 6½	2 9	26 11½
6. Dortmund ..	8 5½	7 3½	5 9½	4 5	9 5	2 6	0 11	0 6½	0 6	0 8	4 0	37 0
7. Sorst	8 5	7 0	6 1½	4 1	8 9½	2 4½	0 11	0 6½	0 6	0 6½	3 6	27 6
8. Werl	8 5½	7 0	6 0½	4 1	8 0	2 7½	1 0½	0 6	0 6	0 6½	3 7½	31 9½
9. Witten	8 6½	7 5	6 2	4 4½	9 0	2 9½	1 0½	..	0 6½	0 7½	4 3	30 0
10. Meuden	8 6½	7 4½	5 11	4 1½	8 4	2 6½	1 0½	..	0 6	0 7	3 4	38 6
11. Bochun	8 10	7 10½	6 3½	4 2½	10 1	3 0	1 0½	..	0 6	0 7½	4 0	42 0
12. Hattingen ..	9 0½	7 5½	6 6½	4 6½	..	2 10½	1 0½	..	0 6½	0 8	4 3	45 9½
13. Schwerte	8 7½	7 5½	6 6	4 3½	8 0½	2 6½	1 0½	..	..	..	..	..
14. Rechlinghausen ..	8 7	7 2	6 10	4 7	7 1	2 4½	1 0½	..	0 6½	0 9½	4 2	41 0

Provinces. Market Towns.	Wheat, Per scheffel.	Rye, Per scheffel.	Barley, Per scheffel.	Oats, Per scheffel.	Peas, Per scheffel.	Potatoes, Per scheffel.	Butter, Per lb.	Tallow (raw), Per lb.	Beef, Per lb.	Pork, Per lb.	Hay, Per cwt.	Straw, Per "schock."
Province of Rhineland—	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1. Cologne	8 4	6 6	5 1	3 9¼	9 8	2 8¾	1 0¾	0 5½	0 6¾	0 10	4 2	26 0½
2. Dusseldorf	8 9	7 1¼	5 9¾	3 11	10 7½	4 0	1 1½	..	0 7½	0 10½	4 7½	37 6
3. Neuss	8 2½	6 3¾	5 6	3 8	8 5	2 0¾	2 0	..	0 6½	0 9	4 4½	30 0
4. Crefeld	8 7¼	6 8¾	6 9	3 11½	9 0¼	3 0	1 0¼	..	0 6½	0 6¾	4 9½	33 7¼
5. Wesel	9 0½	6 10	5 5¼	3 10¾	10 3½	2 4	0 11¾	0 7¼	0 7¼	0 6¾	4 3	32 7¾
6. Klern	9 3	6 8½	6 10¾	3 10	11 0	2 5½	0 11½	0 7¼	0 7	0 7	3 7½	26 5
7. Aix-la-Chapelle	9 0	7 0¾	7 5¼	4 0¾	10 7½	2 10½	1 3½	0 6¼	0 7½	0 9	4 1½	31 8½
8. Malmedy	8 4¼	7 3	6 7	3 9¼	9 6	1 11¼	1 0	0 4¼	0 6	0 8½	2 7¾	22 4½
9. Tier	8 6½	6 11½	5 8½	3 7½	7 10	1 7½	0 11¼	0 5¾	0 7¼	0 7¼	3 0	28 2
10. Saarbruck	8 3	6 6½	6 2½	3 7	6 5	1 9¼	1 1	0 7¾	0 6½	0 7½	4 0¼	34 4½
11. Kreuznach	7 4½	6 4½	5 10¼	3 8½	..	2 2¾	1 0	..	0 6½	0 6½	4 1¼	33 0
12. Simmern	8 4	6 8	5 2½	3 5	10 6¾	1 10½	0 11½	..	0 6	0 6½	3 3½	29 6
13. Coblenz	8 3	6 3¼	5 9½	3 9½	11 11¼	2 0½	1 0½	0 7¼	0 7¼	0 7¼	3 5¾	29 4½
14. Wetzlar	8 2¾	6 3¾	5 5½	3 9	7 6	2 3	1 0	..	0 5¾	0 6	4 0¼	25 7¾
15. Düren	8 2½	6 2	5 4	3 11½	8 3	2 2	1 0¾	0 7¼	0 7¼	0 7¾	3 11	26 4
Average Prices in 1869.												
Of 13 towns in Province of Prussia	8 2¾	6 0	4 9¾	3 6½	6 4¼	1 10¼	0 9	0 6¼	0 4¾	0 6¼	2 3¾	20 8¼
Posen	7 9	5 11½	5 2½	3 8	6 4¼	1 5¼	0 10½	0 6½	0 5¼	0 6¾	2 7¼	20 8¼
Brandenburg	7 11	6 4½	5 5¾	4 0	8 1	2 0½	1 0½	0 7½	0 6	0 7	2 9¼	27 5
Pomerania	8 2¾	6 3¾	5 3	3 8¼	6 9	1 10	1 0	0 5	0 5½	0 7¼	1 8¼	22 0
Silesia	7 9½	6 2	5 2	3 9¼	7 1	1 9	0 11¼	0 6¾	0 5	0 6½	3 6	24 5¼
Saxony	7 8	6 7½	5 11½	4 0	8 0¾	2 2	1 0½	0 8¼	0 5½	0 7	3 10½	25 2½
Westphalia	8 6¾	7 3	6 2¾	4 4½	9 1½	2 6½	0 11¼	0 6¾	0 6	0 7¼	3 8¾	34 6¾
Rhineland	8 5¾	6 8	5 11½	3 9½	9 5	2 2¾	1 0½	0 6½	0 6¾	0 7¾	3 10½	29 9½
Average of 81 towns	8 1¾	6 5½	5 6¼	3 10	7 9¼	2 0½	1 0	0 6¾	0 5½	0 7	3 2½	26 2½

HAMBURGH.

Consul Annesley to Earl Granville.—(Received December 2.)

My Lord, *Hamburgh, November 25, 1870.*

In conformity with the instructions contained in the Circular despatch issued by the late Earl of Clarendon, dated the 7th of June last, I have the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a supplementary Report on the condition of the industrial classes of Hamburgh.

I have, &c.

(Signed) GEORGE ANNESLEY.

Inclosure.

Supplementary Report by Consul Annesley on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Hamburgh.

The preparation of a Report upon the position and general circumstances of the industrial classes of Hamburgh as compared with their fellow-labourers in England, is attended with considerable difficulty from the fact which meets the inquirer at the outset, that Hamburgh, like London or Paris, is a commercial town, and not specially devoted to manufactures, and that consequently that section of the inhabitants which may properly be denominated the artizan or labouring class is comparatively small. Although the population of the State of Hamburgh is rather more than 315,000, the total number of persons dependent on handicrafts of all kinds may be stated, upon the authority of a recent official Report, at about 103,000; while the estimated value of the manufactures produced or finished in and afterwards exported from Hamburgh does not much exceed 2,000,000 sterling, or about 20*l.* per head of those supported by that branch of labour. It is also to be observed that the queries contained in the Circular issued by the late Lord Clarendon under date of the 7th of June last, are principally, if not exclusively, connected with a state of things which does not exist in Hamburgh, or speaking generally, in any part of Germany. No opening whatever is

presented here for the employment of skilled artizans or workmen of any description coming from other countries; the labour market being so overstocked that within the last fifteen years nearly a 1,000,000 of persons have emigrated from the ports of Hamburgh and Bremen to the United States and elsewhere. Several years ago English workmen were in demand here for the execution of the contracts for the gas and waterworks, and the drainage of the town by sewers, but the number then resident here was very small, and, since the completion of the works referred to, German operatives have in almost all cases taken the place of the English workmen. A few English engineers, leather dressers, and other artizans occasionally find employment in Hamburgh, but, as a general rule, they regard their residence here as little more than a temporary equivalent for the total absence of employment at home.

I.—*The Purchase Power of Money.*

With reference to the purchase power of money it may be remarked that Hamburgh furnishes no exception to the rule that the rate of wages generally approximates to the cost of living in all settled countries where the laws of supply and demand are in operation. As to the comparative cost of food it may be stated that the expenses which an English workman would have to meet would, on the whole, be almost as great as in England, were he to live in the English style. The standard of living and the mode of cookery are very different to that which prevails in England, and the food consumed is far inferior, both in quantity and quality, to that which an English workman is accustomed to. Hamburgh being a free port, tea, sugar, coffee, and tobacco are not chargeable with duty, and are consequently cheaper than in the United Kingdom; meat is also lower in price; and, on the whole, the advantage in favour of Hamburgh may be stated at about 20 per cent. as compared with England, with the exception of wheaten bread, and butter, which cost about the same here as there.

Clothing constitutes a large item of expense, and may be stated at from 10 to 15 per cent. dearer than in England. The variations of the weather are very

frequent, a great deal of rain falls, and the cold in winter renders a larger amount of clothing necessary. The working suit of German artizans is generally very coarse and rough, but they manifest a greater amount of neatness on Sundays and holidays than is usually the case with workmen in England; and owing to their great carefulness and frugality they thus manage to make a respectable appearance on wages which an English working man would regard as totally inadequate.

The cost of lodging differs materially from that which prevails in most English towns. Rents in Hamburgh have manifested an upward tendency for some years past, and although several large failures have resulted from over-speculation in building it is to be regretted that no diminution in this important item of expenditure appears probable, as the interest on mortgages has risen from $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. to 5 per cent. per annum within the last twelve or fifteen years, and is still rising. The disadvantage to which the industrial classes are exposed here will be evident from the fact that the cost of house-rent for a married working man amounts to about one-fourth or one-fifth of his income, while in England the average expense does not exceed one-seventh. In this respect the working man in Hamburgh has great difficulties to contend with, and it is only by temperance and the great frugality already referred to, that the balance is maintained between income and expenditure.

II.—*Power of Preserving Health.*

With the exception of the frequent changes of the weather, and the severity of the winter already alluded to, the climate of this part of Germany does not greatly differ from that of England. Many of the houses inhabited by the industrial classes are open to great objection, but workmen may obtain healthy dwellings without much difficulty at a short distance from their work, and they are exposed to no risk as regards their health to which they would not be liable in greater or less degree in towns in England. The greater part of Hamburgh and the suburbs is drained, there are no dangerous epidemics, and the average rate of mortality is about the same as that prevailing in the towns of

Leeds and Newcastle-on-Tyne, viz., 26 per 1000, while the density of the population is in the town itself 109 persons per Prussian morgen,* and on the average of the towns and suburbs taken together 65 persons per morgen. The climate would probably be injurious to persons liable to consumption, but the general conditions of safe and healthy existence are much the same as in England. The markets are always plentifully supplied with food, of which there is a great variety, but it would be well for a stranger to abstain from fruit to some extent, and to avoid cheap and injurious spirits altogether. It is advisable to avoid exposure to the sun in the height of summer, as sunstrokes happen occasionally, and are not unfrequently fatal.

III.—*Quality of the Work executed by Workmen.*

The artizans of Hamburgh are generally competent to perform the work entrusted to them, but are in most cases slow in execution, and manifest less interest in it than English workmen do. It is asserted by many that the moral position of the workmen here is not so high as when the protective system of guilds was in full operation in every trade, and that the freedom which they have obtained by the abolition of those Corporations a few years ago, and the more recent removal within the boundaries of the North German Confederation of all restrictions upon the exercise of trade, has been taken advantage of by them to the injury of their employers; and that those artizans who formerly competed for quality now look upon quantity as the only thing worthy of consideration and effort. It is, however, affirmed on the other hand that the evils complained of are the result of the old system, the influence of which has not yet died out, and a great improvement is therefore looked forward to among them in the course of a few years, as education extends its sway. Be that as it may, there is little doubt that the quality of the work executed in the various departments of labour is at present secured by masters appealing not so much to the honour as to the pecuniary interest of their workmen; and now that the struggle for existence has become so severe it is to be feared that few men, either here or elsewhere, would make the same stand against doing bad work that they would against

* 1 morgen = 0·6394 acre.

accepting bad wages. There is, however, a superior class of workmen in Hamburgh who are credited with the possession of a sense of honour and responsibility in the execution of their duties, namely, the quartiers-leute, or warehousemen, a body of men peculiar to Hamburgh, whose work combines the receiving and delivery of cargoes, and the weighing, assortment, and repacking of goods received from abroad, previous to their transmission into the interior of Germany or reshipment to foreign countries. There are about 500 or 600 of these men, who work together in companies of four or six men each, employing labourers to help them occasionally. One of the number usually takes the lead and the general responsibility, but is otherwise on an equality with his partners as regards position and share of the proceeds. The co-operation of workmen in this way for the supply of manual labour to the mercantile community is one of the characteristics of Hamburgh, and might with great advantage be introduced into England, where, as in Rochdale and other towns, the co-operative principle has hitherto been confined to manufactures of various kinds. The system works very well here, and, as these men have an extensive knowledge of the quality of goods, and are upright and trustworthy in their dealings, they enjoy a more elevated social position than is the case with any other body of men personally engaged in manual labour.

The recent establishment of Trades Unions has been productive of pecuniary benefit to the working-classes, but has destroyed the good feeling that previously existed between them and their employers, and has lately given rise to protracted but fruitless strikes. The increase of wages and the slight reduction of the hours of labour which has taken place of late years has not been so advantageous as might have been expected; and there would seem to be less disposition among the men engaged in the building trade to attend evening schools and avail themselves of the opportunities for self-improvement than was to be observed when their pay was lower and their labour longer. It is, however, affirmed, on the other hand, that this deterioration is not so much to be found among the natives of Hamburgh as among the strangers who have been attracted here in large numbers from the interior by the higher pay that is generally to be obtained.

The hours of labour and the rate of wages having been stated in a former Report, it is not thought necessary to repeat them here.

SUMMARY.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
Labour—	Marks.	*s.*	
Average wages, weekly ..	12½	15	About 20 per cent. higher than in England.
Provisions—			
Meat and groceries are cheaper than in England; wheaten bread, butter, and cheese are about the same here as there.			

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The general standard of living is very low. Markets well supplied with food.

Clothing.—Greater demand for clothing than in England, and consequent cost 10 or 14 per cent. higher.

Lodging.—Dwellings are generally healthy, but rent is about one-fourth higher than in England.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks—The quality of work is good, but the workmen are generally slow and not greatly interested in their occupations. The men engaged by the merchants in warehousing and repacking goods received from abroad occupy a higher moral and social position than other workmen. The removal of restrictions on labour has permitted the establishment of Trades Unions, and produced feelings of estrangement between workmen and their employers. The working classes are sober and frugal, but there is room for improvement in their general character.

(Signed) GEORGE ANNESLEY.

Hamburgh, November 25, 1870.

RUSSIA.

KERTCH.

Consul Barrow to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 12.)

My Lord, *Kertch, November* 8, 1870.

In compliance with your Lordship's instructions, contained in Mr. Under-Secretary Otway's Circular of 7th June, I have the honour to forward herewith my Report relative to the purchase power of money in Kertch, as also on matters of health, and quality of work.

I have, &c.

(Signed) PETER BARROW.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Barrow on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Kertch.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money in Kertch as compared with England.*

The rouble, which is worth, on the average, 2*s.* 6*d.*, the rate of exchange fluctuating between 7 roubles 50 copecks and 8 roubles 50 copecks to the 1*l.*, must be considered, as a general rule, equal to the English shilling.

A house that would cost 200 roubles a-year rent in Kertch, or 25*l.*, may be procured in England for as many shillings, say 10*l.*, and of a much better sort. The same with regard to clothing. A coat that costs 30*s.* in London is sold in Kertch for 30 to 35 roubles.

Boots, which could be procured in London for 7*s.*, costs 7 roubles 50 copecks in Kertch, and very inferior, as welting is very imperfectly known.

Woollen shirts are from 10 to 15 roubles.

As to provisions, meat, bread, and poultry alone are

cheap, though the first item is much higher now than it was four years ago, when it was sold at 3½ to 4 copecks per lb., whereas it is now sold at 7 and 8 copecks. Bread, 16 copecks for the 5-lb. loaf, about 1*d.* a pound. Sugar, 6*d.* per lb. Fresh butter, 1*s.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* per. lb. Eggs from 8*d.* to 1*s.* per dozen. Fowls from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* the pair. Salt butter from Siberia, 7*d.* to 8*d.* per lb. Tea of an inferior quality, 6*s.* per lb.; better quality at 8*s.*—the Russian lb. being less than the English by nearly one-tenth, or ·903.

Every item purchased in shops may be reckoned in roubles for shillings, so that in reality wages of 20*l.* a-month are scarcely worth more in purchase-money than 8*l.* to 10*l.* at home.

This can necessarily be but an approximate estimate, some few articles above-named being much cheaper here than in England, to which may be added fish, which is very cheap, and at times very abundant.

The average charge of medical visits 2 roubles. The hospital fees are 7 roubles 50 copecks per month; but the superintending doctor is so badly paid—I believe about 40*l.* a-year—that any man of ordinary medical talent can employ that talent to better advantage by practising in the town, and none but an inexperienced man would accept the hospital charge. In addition to which there is a want of humanity.

I am a frequent, almost daily, visitor at the hospital, where I send many British subjects, and from all I hear the same complaint,—scarcity of nourishment, bordering on starvation, and an utter want of feeling or sympathy for the sick among the attendants.

A portion of bread, under a pound, is given to them for twenty-four hours, the double of which many men would consume at a meal. The soup and meat distributed are pronounced by all the recipients as unfit to eat, although they do not belong to a class accustomed to luxury.

If an application for a cup of water is made during the day it is sternly and rudely refused.

A towel is allowed to each patient, with which he envelops his bread, washes his face, and wipes off from time to time any suppuration from a wound.

Their mattress is a thin layer of straw in a sack, laid on crossbars, forming the bottom of the bed.

There is no pharmacy in the hospital, but the purchase of required medicaments is intrusted to the infirmiers. The whole hospital system is bad, and though it may be sufficient for Russians, is totally unfit for the reception of foreigners, and certainly cannot be included among—

II.—*Matters connected with the Promotion of Health.*

Plain diet, with a very reasonable but not immoderate consumption of ripe fruit, is most conducive to health; while unripe fruit, which is generally to be found in the bazaars in great abundance—and melons of all kinds, more especially the water melon—produce, as the latter invariably does in all climates, fever, diarrhœa, dysentery, and even cholera, and which therefore an emigrant should scrupulously avoid.

As to beverages, it is difficult to prescribe, as the water is brackish, hard, and bad, while the wines and spirits are worse, and there is great fear lest the emigrant

"Incidit in Scyllam, cupiens vitare Charybdam."

The most wholesome beverage is the red Crimean wine, made from Bordeaux vines transplanted, diluted with water. It possesses a powerful tonic as well as a restringent which prevents the bladder from relaxing, while the white Crimean wines, mostly preferred, resembling an inferior Sauterne, are most deleterious, being full of an extraneous matter which cannot be called a sediment, *quia non sedet*, although the heaviest particles naturally settle at the bottom; but in holding a bottle of this wine to the light an innumerable quantity of particles may be seen, not floating, not settling, but always moving through the wine from top to bottom, and *vice versâ*.

A free indulgence in this wine will assuredly in time produce gravel, stone, and stoppages of urine, while at the same time it is destructively injurious to the nervous system, having a latent effervescence in it, which occasions the continual ascent and descent of the particles described.

Even in England I may venture to observe, with a desire to give a useful hint to humanity, that men who habitually use any white wines, especially sherry, or even Madeira, are the first to be afflicted with prostration of

the nerves in after life, as also paralysis, congestion of brain, gout, &c.

This *en passant*, as my instructions do not demand any observations on this point.

As to the Russian "watkey," intolerably detestable to the unhabituated, it is like all other vices—

> "Of such hideous mien,
> That to be hated needs but to be seen;
> Yet, seen too oft, familiar with its face,
> Men first endure, then pity, then embrace."

In corroboration of which I may remark that even ship-masters who, in their wooden houses, like birds on a branch, are here to-day and gone to-morrow, on arriving tastes the far-famed "watkey," pronounce it detestable, and throw it away. A second and third trial enables them to endure it; they subsequently pity those who have fallen victims to an immoderate use of it, and finally—as pity is akin to love—they embrace it, until at length "watkey's" their only wear; and I have seen men drink, and heard others affirm, that from being hale and hearty as when they arrived, after a few months' detention they have become grey-headed, stupefied, and rapidly approaching the last stage of *delirium tremens*. It is aquafortis, and more injurious than any spirit I know of.

Clothing also requires great caution. The originator of the "Quarterly Review" used to say, "Carry an umbrella with you always in fine weather, in wet weather you can do as you please." The same rule may be suggested with regard to clothing. However mild or even hot the weather may be, except in the summer months it is essential to be always rather too much than too little clothed. It often happens that when walking out on a hot and sultry day a sudden change of wind occurs, and, if in the southerly direction, a piercing Siberian blast, passed on uninterruptedly for want of trees or mountains from the North Pole, checks perspiration, throwing it inwards, and not unfrequently hurries a man before his time to his mother earth. So that on a fine day of sunshine it is a common thing to meet men carrying some sort of overcoat on their arm. Exertion or exhaustion need cause no apprehension with prudence.

Working men would have difficulty in finding healthy lodgings, because the owners of such lodgings as he would seek are naturally dirty and unwashed. They

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throw out the refuse of everything, solid or liquid, in front of their houses or in their yards, and there is no penalty for so doing.

Their better and only plan would be to club together and take one large building, which might be subdivided into apartments or compartments.

Ventilated they assuredly could be—*satis superque*—but "premises drained," "freedom from miasmated dirt," and from consequent "air poisoning," are not to be expected in Kertch, where "wallowing in the mire is preferred."

Risks to the health of a family from these dangers can only be obviated by the suggestion made above; as, although not unknown in England, these risks are infinitely greater in Kertch.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The quality of work executed in the several departments of labour is generally good, comparatively speaking, for they are not superlatively competent, although they take a certain pride in their work, and put their character, such as it is, into it. But they are not particular about doing bad work, although they object to bad wages.

Cabinet-makers, carpenters, tailors, boot-makers, and tinmen seem to have most sense of honour in executing their work, and thus their skill has exercised a certain influence on the rate of wages.

I have, &c.

(Signed) PETER BARROW.

Kertch, November 8, 1870.

NICOLAIEFF.

Report by Vice-Consul Stevens on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Vice-Consular District of Nicolaieff.

Purchase Power of Money.

THE purchase power of money for people in middle-class life is about the same as in England as far as concerns the natives; but as regards foreigners, and more especially Englishmen, it is notorious that they cannot live near so comfortably in any part of South Russia for the same money as in any other part of Europe, and particularly England; hence it is that, though receiving higher wages, remuneration and profit, very rare instances are known where Englishmen have laid by money; and during twelve years' experience, every opportunity of inquiry and unremitted observation, I can vouch for the fact, that I have not known one Englishman who has succeeded in laying by money or doing better than what his abilities might have achieved had he remained at home; but for the working classes it is different; the purchase power of money for this class may be fairly computed as half that in England as concerns the natives, and one-third cheaper than in England for foreigners and Englishmen;* these latter too, when engaged for service with employers, receive higher remuneration, and, except 2 roubles annually for their passports, are exempt of taxes; and such as are of sober habits and have remained out here a long time, which, for reasons hereafter mentioned, is not frequently the case, they have retired with more than the competition in their respective professions or trades could have led them to hope for in England. For the most part these have been married men, whose wives were either natives, or who, by contact with natives, learned the many peculiarities of native house management.

Industrial and Artizan Classes.

The proportion of the industrial and artizan classes is about equal.

* Mr. Stevens has subsequently explained that he meant by this observation, that for the working classes (natives) the expense of living would be one-half, and that of Englishmen of the same class one-third cheaper than in England.—K. E. A.

Some live in their own cottages, which are generally built of mud and thatched with reeds, tolerably comfortably in summer, but very close and confined in winter, when every crevice, crack and key-hole of windows, doors and apertures are obliged to be caulked and puttied over, which, and the heating and cooking with reeds, flax stems and dried manure, breeds much sickness, and carries death amongst children especially. Foreigners, however, are known to have suffered equally as much, and in some instances more, through sickness from cold, by pursuing an opposite course and foregoing native precautions against the inclemency of the winter.

Some artizans also live in similar cottages, which they hire by the month or year, at a rental of from 16 to 35 roubles (2*l.* to 4*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*) according to the situation, and are composed of—

1. A sleeping and sitting room.
2. An entrance where generally the water-tub is kept.
3. A kitchen with an oven, over which the family generally sleep in winter.
4. A cellar for the winter stock of cabbages and solanum, &c.
5. A store room.

Many keep a cow and a pig in the yard, which is an inclosure fenced in by plaited reeds.

Other artizans are lodged by their employers on their premises and such who for the most part are engaged in the north of Russia for work only during the fine season, are provided with a simple shed with a rough boarded floor for a bedstead. Resident workmen are paid by the day; those from Upper Russia, such as stonemasons, plaisterers, carpenters, glaziers, &c., are engaged for the season from March to October inclusive, at a lump sum.

Resident workmen earn from 2*s.* 6*d.* in summer to 3*s.* to 4*s.* in autumn, when the harvest causes a demand for hands. The average may be fairly stated at 3*s.* per diem, which has to keep them on holidays, which, with Sundays, number 163 days, leaving 202 working days in the year; many also feast the "God's Mother of Gasparoffka" near the mouth of the Dnieper, an image discovered walking on its head a few months before the Emperor Nicholas' death, by a Jew, who kept a tavern in the vicinity of the miracle; and though the Emperor

Nicholas made a concession of one day in the year to celebrate this miracle, the visit of the image once or twice a year to the towns of South Russia, and the visits to it at the church of Gasparoffka, entails to many another five days' holidays, when, even if the workmen are inclined to work, their employers will not work them. Most respectable workmen have frequently told me that, could they work six days in the week, they would be satisfied with half the present rate of wages; and I have myself assisted to engage many for service in the European Danube Commission for less wages than the parties would have accepted locally, simply because they were told that there would be no holidays except on Sundays. It should be borne in mind that few Russians are free of the superstition of commencing a new job on a Monday, which is vulgarly known as the "heavy day;" and those who work in continuation of a job already commenced are seldom sober until noon on Monday, more especially when Saturday too should have chanced to be a holiday, a most frequent occurrence. Jewish workmen labour under disadvantage from their not working on both Saturday and Sunday, and they therefore prefer not working by the day, but setting up shops of their own.

The workmen engaged in the north receive from 7*l.* to 16*l.* for the season, according to merit, and are boarded on cabbage-soup, millet, and rye-bread, and lodged as above described, in addition; their lot is a poor one indeed, and yet they are good workers and have been highly prized and eagerly sought after by the constructors of the Roumanian railways, who, as also Sir Charles Hartley, have assured me that they have found no better workmen anywhere.

Prospects for Emigrants to this Country.

Recent Russian resolve requires all Russian enterprise to employ no foreigners or foreign material if they can be avoided; and it is notorious that foreigners are only sought where and when the Empire fails in supply, and then the most binding contracts are useless once the foreigner's art is learnt tolerably well by natives, who are quick at imitation; the smallest pretext is made an excuse for dismissing the foreigner; he is arbitrarily

dismissed, and his only hope for even moderate redress lies in the influence and pains-taking of his Consul, who in nine cases out of ten refers the applicant to the civil tribunals, where no sane man would venture a lawsuit unless he resolves to settle down in the country ten or fifteen years to await an uncertain issue. It is upwards of ten years since an Englishman, who with a Russian partner set up a fine flour mill in this town, which, once in working order, the Russian tried to buy him out of; finding this impossible, the Russian dragged the Englishman into the tribunals; the mill was closed with everything perishable and imperishable in it; the doors were sealed, and so they remained up to this morning, when I drove past the establishment, and so probably matters will remain for another ten years; in the meantime, the unfortunate Englishman who, believing the power of his adversary was in the fact of his nationality, became a Russian subject, and, after spending his last penny on his just suit, has been reduced to the purchase of a donkey, and, assuming the garb of a Dulcamara, travels from fair to fair, selling bread and soap-pills as a specific against ague. I could quote volumes of cases of unfair and arbitrary treatment to which Englishmen, decoyed out of England, in some instances with capital and families, have been subjected. Mr. George Furness' case is too recent and well known to require further comment than the passing remark that he was quarrelled with the very moment the Russians learned to pave the streets of Odessa for themselves; and he is now in the Russian tribunals, adding to his ruinous losses daily, with every right on his side, but not the same conviction as to the final redress which will be awarded him.

Mr. William Millar, the son of an English General,—who has for more than twenty-five years instructed, as superintending engineer of the Nicolaiev arsenal, nearly every one of the engineers and engine-drivers attached to the Black Sea naval force,—resides at this very moment a few doors from me in *quasi* poverty, having been shelved on the reduction of the naval establishment here in 1866, to make way for his foreman, received the scanty bounty of 65*l.*, and that only on the kind request and assistance of Her Majesty's Ambassador, and considers himself most fortunate (after being upwards of a year without employ, without means to get to England with his family, and

actually lacking bread for it) to have obtained a temporary Government job at something short of 25*l.* per month, and that too fast drawing to a close. Engineers, ship and boat builders, millers, tin-platelayers, boiler constructors, plumbers, farriers, stud-grooms, jockies, farmers, dairymen, painters, bookbinders, and in one instance even a lot of French colonists, men, and respectable men of all classes and callings, have, during my long sojourn in this country, applied to me, smarting under treatment such as I have described. With every possible will to aid them, beyond a compromise, in which my applicants, as a rule, have come worst off, nothing was possible; and though I consider that there is vast opening for the introduction of labour from without, I should indeed be sorry to recommend any one to immigrate, however binding he may make his compact upon a Russian employer. Only very recently I refused, for the very reason I have mentioned, to assist Russians to obtain Englishmen for iron-shipbuilding, on a concession made of premises at Odessa; and my experience of shabby and scanty treatment palmed off on Englishmen and foreigners still more recently caused me to refuse to aid a plan for bringing out some plumbers, farriers, and wheel-wrights, whom it was desired to bring out to South Russia to replace Prussians who had to return home consequent on the war.

Quality of Work executed by Native Workmen.

The workmen are generally competent but careless, and demanding constant supervision: this is most difficult to obtain; and nearly all the large factories in South Russia (of any note) are directed in their several departments by Englishmen and other foreigners. The chief ganger at the granite quarries at Alexandrovka is an Englishman; the director of the extensive Tchemomsky sugar factories in Poltava also; the superintending engineer of the rocket factory here, the superintending engineer of the Russian Steam Navigation Company at Odessa and his assistant, the Company's chief engineer in the Don Mines, the one at Sevastopol, their boiler master, their master painter, and the heads of other departments, are also Englishmen. The millers and engineers of six saw and flour mills here and at

Kherson are either Englishmen or Frenchmen. The Company's workshops at Odessa are directed by a German; and many other establishments employ foreigners, showing how untrustworthy is the native for supervision. No native takes a pride in his work; and his employer is as indifferent on this point; and none hesitate to copy and mould English patented machinery and implements, not even caring in most instances to avoid casting the name of the foreign manufacturer, a forgery which many a landed proprietor discovers at his cost when he puts his purchase on the field—a piracy which not unfrequently brings discredit on the manufacturers in the west of Europe, and a system adopted in every factory of South Russia, those of this arsenal not excepted.

Some five years ago a factory in this vicinity, which has now ceased to exist, drove a good trade in making horse-power thrashers with Ransome's and Sims' brand, with "Sic vos non vobis" round the brand. There is no class upon whom dependence can be placed; and even in the building trade the proprietor must personally superintend his own buildings (although he may have made a contract with a master) if he wishes to have his work tolerably done; and he will experience great difficulty if he wishes any portion executed in a superior manner.

Climate.—Precautions to be taken.

The climate as concerns Nicolaieff is not unhealthy, except in the lower parts of the town; and the precautions necessary are not more onerous than those exacted by all countries where there is no depending for a day on the stability of the temperature. The Government of Kherson is, however, a vast and extensive territory, and the climate differs. Along the Dniester, Boug, Ingoul, Merdvoda, Dnieper, Dnieprovka, Konka Ingouletz, Chaika, and other streams where I have travelled, I have invariably met fever and ague, varying in type according to the extent of the marshy grounds around and about the locality, and according to the height of the waters in spring. In such years, when the rivers and streams are much swollen, the ague is obstinate and apt to turn into sudden dropsy or typhus. Flannel next

to the skin, with a small quantity of peppercorns swallowed occasionally, are very useful in preventing fever; and water as a beverage should be avoided during June and July, or the season of the flowering of the reeds. Fruit, fish and pork should also be avoided in these months, when the remittent fever and skin diseases are very prevalent amongst the working-classes. The native sheepskin overcoat is a great protection in winter against chest diseases; though, worn as the natives wear it, from October until April without taking it off during the whole time, and without washing during the whole period, it breeds skin diseases of the most serious character.

Most native workmen rub grease over their faces and hands in winter; and even among the easier classes the ladies in winter use cold cream in lieu of water. The use of the native fur cap breeds scab, and the high boots, with nothing between the leather and the skin, is most injurious to health. A Russian military doctor informed me, not long ago, that consumption is a very prevalent disease among the soldiers, which he attributed to the sudden casting off of the peasants' sheepskin for the recruit's cloth coat, without any additional underclothing.

Prices of Provisions.

The following are the summer prices: in winter they would be 8 to 10 per cent. dearer on such days when the weather permits of a bazaar being held; when otherwise, they cannot be had at all. The inhabitants have cellars, and stock them in October; and the working-classes find it most onerous to advance the amount for flour on five months' supply of provisions and fuel, which, with house-rent (always paid in advance), requires a considerable outlay.

		s.	d.	
Beef, veal, mutton, and pork	3*d.* to	0	4	per lb.
Bread, middling		0	3	per 2 lbs.
,, best		0	4	per 1 lb.
Rye, best		0	1½	,,
Butter, fresh		1	2	,,
,, salt		1	0	,,
Cheese, bad, native		0	7	,,
,, Swiss and English		2	6	,,
Millet		0	1	,,
Buckwheat		0	1	,,

	s.	d.	
Sugar refined (no other qualities are used)	0	9	per lb.
Tea, cheapest	3	9	„
Firewood, fir	20	0	per cartload.
„ oak	26	0	„
Coals, native anthracite	60	0	per ton.
„ English bituminous	40	0	„
Water	2	6	per cart.
„	0	1	per pail.
„ Boug, brackish	0	0½	„
Cabbages	10	0	per 100.
Carrots	0	4	per 10.
Onions	0	3	per 50.
Parsley	0	0¼	per bunch.
Potatoes	0	1½	per lb.
Solanum	2	6	per 100.
Tallow dips	0	6	per lb.
„ moulds	0	7	„
Composition candles	1	0	„
Petroleum	1	0	per quart.
Flour, best	0	2	per lb.
„ seconds	0	1½	„
Coffee	1*s.* to 1	6	„
Milk	0	5	per quart.
Bacon, lard, ham	0	7	per lb.
Fowls	2*s.* 6*d.* to 3	0	per pair.
Geese	2*s.* 6*d.* to 3	0	each.
Turkeys	3*s.* to 7	0	„
Soap	0	5	per lb.
Starch	0	4	„
Maccaroni	0	3	„
Rice	0	3	„
Eggs	3	6	per 100.
Fish (average)	0	10	per lb.
Craw fish	0	2½	per 100.
Wine, commonest, bad	0	6	per bottle.
„ passable	1	2	„
Vodki, or brandy	1	6	„

Manure dried and caked for fuel is this year at 30*s.* per seven cubic feet. Reeds and linseed straw and flax stems and brushwood 5*s.* per 30 bundles.

English measure £1 = 7 roubles 60 copecks, present exchange.

The comparison with the prices of the summer of 1868 shows an increase of 5 per cent., and an extra 2 per cent. against last year; while those with my house-expense book, kept at Kherson in 1858, show an increase of 110 per cent. on beef, and 25 to 42 per cent. on other articles, except sugar and candles and water, which do not vary.

(Signed) GEO. ALEX. STEVENS.

Nicolaieff, October 31, 1870.

ODESSA.

Consul-General Abbott to Earl Granville.—(Received December 1.)

My Lord, *Odessa, November 20; 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to transmit inclosed to your Lordship a paper containing the various statistical information required by Mr. Under-Secretary Otway's Circular despatch of the 7th of June.

I have, &c.

(Signed) KEITH EDWD. ABBOTT.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul-General Abbott on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Odessa.

Emigration.—THE country of New Russia and Bessarabia forming the Government of which Odessa is the principal city, is not likely now to attract to it emigration from other parts of Europe. Though many colonies of Germans were founded in this part of the country in the end of last, and early in the present century, and those communities have, through the favour of the Government, which allowed them many advantages and immunities over the native inhabitants, become very flourishing, this system of colonization has not been followed up, though it could not be otherwise than advantageous to the country and Government. The immunities and other advantages which were enjoyed by those colonists occasioned, it is said, considerable jealousy and disgust amongst the Russian community, but, whether from this cause or from the aversion of the Government to encourage within its territories races which will not conform to the National Church (for these German colonists are either Lutherans or Catholics)—perhaps for both reasons, and because it was found that those colonists, when they became rich, would frequently quit the country or abandon their agriculture to engage in commerce, the Government has ceased to promote the

scheme of immigration from foreign lands which was first introduced by Peter the Great, and followed up by his successors down to the reign of Nicholas. The country which goes under the appellation of New Russia is much exposed to droughts from the absence of rain and the want of artificial irrigation, the consequence of which is the frequent failure of the crops, and would not, therefore, offer much encouragement to the ordinary emigrant, though land is exceedingly cheap, and may be purchased, according to the locality, at from 14 to 60 roubles per dessiatina, which would be equal to about 14*s.* to 3*l.* 8*s.* per acre, the price depending not only on the quality of the land but on its vicinity to or distance from the course of some navigable stream. The country of New Russia is, generally speaking, an open, bleak region, exposed in winter to intense cold. The same may be said of Bessarabia, though towards the north it is wooded and rendered fertile by frequent rains; but throughout these countries the communication, excepting by the solitary lines of railway is difficult, made roads unknown, and the communication rendered almost impracticable after each fall of rain.

English and Scotch who find Employment there.—But though this country has possessed few attractions for the general emigrant, a good many English and Scotch have, during the present century, found employment in it either as engineers, mechanics, paviours, or stone-cutters, and many governesses and nurses from England are found in the country. The former classes, however, have generally been placed in exceptional circumstances, having been brought out by Houses or Companies established on the spot, and provided with lodgings at the expense of their employers, by whom they have have no doubt been liberally provided for in other respects. I understand the wages paid in this place for English labour has been as follows:—

	£ s. d.
Foremen engineers average about 3*l.* per week.	
Foremen carpenters „ 2*l.* 10*s.* per week.	
Foremen blacksmiths „ 2*l.* 10*s.* „	
Stonecutters, English and Scotch, as paid in 1866; as foremen, smiths and shooters, 2 roubles 2 copecks to 3 roubles per day = (5*s.* 1*d.* to 7*s.* 6*d.*).	
Common workmen in quarries 30 copecks to 5 roubles per ton of stone = (9*d.* to 12*s.* 6*d.*).	

Wages.—The wages paid to native workmen and labourers are—

Working engineers, 1 rouble 40 copecks to 2 roubles daily = (3*s.* to 5*s.*).
Working carpenters, 1 rouble 30 copecks to 2 roubles daily = (3*s.* 3*d.* to 5*s.*).
Working blacksmiths, 1 rouble 30 copecks to 1 rouble 80 copecks = (3*s.* 3*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.*).
Ordinary labourers (mechanics) 75 copecks to 1 rouble = (1*s.* 10½*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.*).
Common labourers employed in paving, &c., in 1866, 30 copecks to 1 rouble 60 copecks = (9*d.* to 3*s.* 10½*d.*).
Common day-labourers (according to the season) 60 copecks to 2 rupees = (1*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.*).
Watchmakers—
Monthly wages from 25 roubles to 60 roubles = (62*s.* 6*d.* to 150*s.*)
Apprentices are taken from 4 to 6 years, found with lodging and food, and, after the above periods, promoted to be workmen.
Gold and Silversmiths—
Workmen are paid monthly at the rate of 10 roubles, 15 roubles, and upwards to 60 roubles = (25*s.*, 62*s.* 6*d.*, and 150*s.*).
A very few men as high as 75 roubles and 100 roubles = (9*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* to 12*l.* 10*s.*).

Russian Workmen.—The Russian workman appears to be intelligent and laborious, but is said to be careless and indifferent as to the quality of the work he turns out, and therefore will always require to be sharply looked after. It is not thought that he is often conscientious or that he takes a pride in the quality of the work he may execute, and he would undertake any that was given him without reference to his character as a workman. It is probable that Russian artizans are fast acquiring greater skill in all departments of their trade, for the Russian is of an imitative, if not of an inventive turn, and as he improves in skill he will naturally, one may suppose, improve in the care and quality of the work he executes.

Contract System.—Workmen in this country are frequently engaged by the year or season, by parties who dispose of their services in gangs for any work that may be required; so that if a house is to be built the architect has only to warn one of these contractors that so many masons or carpenters are required, and they are immediately supplied. The system has these advantages for the working-man: he is provided for so much of the

year, without having to seek more frequently for labour; and he has a certain sum to depend upon instead of an uncertain prospect of wages. On the other hand, the system is rather calculated to depress the workman, who is probably engaged at a lower rate of wages than he might expect to obtain in the market himself; and the mode of making such contracts has hitherto been open to objection.

English Governesses, Nurses, and Servants.—Though a good many English governesses and nurses find employment in this country, as observed already, the system now generally pursued by families, of getting daily teachers for the instruction of their children, has rendered the former class of our countrywomen in less request than before. A high opinion is entertained in this country of the good management of English governesses and nurses. For the former, the salaries vary from 250 to 650 roubles (31*l.* to 81*l.*) per annum; for the latter, 150 to 250 roubles (19*l.* to 31*l.*)

I believe that were there an establishment existing here for the supply of English servants, many might find advantageous situations. The servants of this country are the worst I have ever seen anywhere. There is no comfort, order, or cleanliness to be had from them, and very few, apparently, can be trusted. They are flighty, discontented, and very inattentive to orders, and their propensity for gadding is notorious. The Russian servant will strike off work during the principal festival days of this very festive Church, so that it is difficult to get on with Russian servants alone. English servants are in good repute here, but I should be sorry to encourage any to come to so expensive a place as this without a certainty of employment.

Purchase Power of Money.—With respect to the purchase power of money in this place as compared with England, I should consider it as about 2 to 3 for the upper classes, whilst for natives of the lower orders, whose diet is of the simplest and least expensive kind, living must be infinitely cheaper than in England. I doubt if in this town there would be much advantage to the lower class Englishman over his position at home. He would pay much more for shoes and clothing in general, and get very bad things in exchange for his money; and though he would pay no direct taxes

excepting for permit of residence, he would discover that house and water-rent and fuel were very expensive items. House-rent is certainly much higher than in any provincial town in England. Servants' wages may be about the same as there, but less work is obtained for the money and all is done in a slovenly incomplete manner. With the exception of bread, provisions—the produce of the country—are, generally speaking, cheaper than in England, as may be observed by the following list:—

Bread (of wheat) 3 copecks to 8 copecks per foont = (4*d.* to 9$\frac{3}{5}$*d.* per 4 lbs. English).
Meat 8 copecks to 9 copecks per foont = (2$\frac{2}{5}$*d.* to 3*d.* per lb. English).
Fowls 30 copecks each = (3*d.*)
Eggs 15 roubles per 1000 = (5$\frac{2}{5}$*d.* per dozen).
Milk 10 copecks per Russian quart = (3*d.* per English quart).
Butter, in retail, 35 copecks per foont = (11$\frac{1}{2}$*d.* per lb.)
„ in quantity, 10 roubles per pood = (8$\frac{1}{2}$*d.* per lb.)
Potatoes 50 copecks per pood = (3*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.).
Wine, a light native wine of good quality, 20 copecks per French bottle = (6*d.*)
Beer, German, 1 rouble 50 copecks per vedro = (4$\frac{1}{2}$*d.* per English quart).

Every article of foreign produce, such as clothing, furniture, and the many objects which enter into the use of a household, are all extremely expensive, being burthened with heavy duty on arrival here. Firing is another considerable item of expense in a country where the winters are so long and severe; it amounts for each room during that season to about 3*l.* Coal costs about 42*s.* a ton. Finally, the unfortunate person who may reckon his income at an average rate of exchange to be so many pounds sterling, may find himself in the course of a few days minus 10 to 20 per cent. of it by variations in the currency, which being almost entirely a paper one, is subject to these considerable fluctations. On this account it would be well that those who come from England on engagements in this country, should fix beforehand the exchange at which they should be paid their salaries. This would prevent vexatious disputes and disappointment to the recipients. Eight roubles per 1*l.* sterling has been the average exchange for some time past.

Climate, Diet, &c.—The climate of Odessa is un-

doubtedly a healthy one during a good part of the year, though diarrhœa and cholerine are generally prevalent during the fruit season. The streets are very broad and airy, though ill kept and only partially paved. In summer the heats are considerable, and bad smells and malaria abound, which render a removal to the country very desirable. In the midst of the heats sudden changes are experienced from cold wind, and this is the principal danger to be guarded against at that season. In winter the cold may last from the middle of November to the middle of March, but the intense cold, which sometimes, though not frequently, attains to 30 degrees below 0 of Fahrenheit's thermometer (that is 62 degrees below freezing point), is seldom of very long continuance, though whilst it lasts the harbours and bay are frozen over to a considerable depth. During the great cold all classes of the people wrap themselves up carefully in skins or in expensive furs.

With respect to diet, I do not believe the conditions essential for the preservation of health differ from those required generally in other parts of Europe. Provisions of most kinds are abundant and good.

One of the greatest difficulties of settling in Odessa is in obtaining house accommodation. Rents, from having formerly been moderate, are now exceedingly high, having increased enormously during the last thirty years, and at least sixty per cent. within the past three years. The population is increasing, and it is becoming more and more difficult to obtain house room. Of furnished quarters few are obtainable, and furnished lodgings, such as are common in England, are scarcely known here. The lower class of Russian dwellings are miserable places of abode; and the filth and stench which generally surround them must breed disease, though, as there is so much more space and air, not to the same extent as would be the case in England. Odessa is now only attending to its drainage, which is proceeding slowly; and the custom of crowding many families under one roof with a court-yard in common for the whole, is against the maintenance of cleanliness and order or that feeling of home which belongs to English dwellings. The ventilation of houses of even the better order in Russia is very imperfect, especially during winter, when the windows, which are invariably double,

are tightly caulked and puttied up until Spring, and the only means of letting in fresh air is through one pane, which is made to open. The town is ill supplied with water, being dependent on the fall of rain for what is fresh, which is collected in cisterns. For common purposes water of a brackish quality is conveyed to the town by pipes from a distance, and this is becoming an increased item of charge to the people; but there are hopes that in the course of a year or two a sufficient supply of wholesome water will be obtained from the Dniester.

There would be great difficulty, generally speaking, for working men from abroad with respect to house accommodation as good as they have been accustomed to in England, and the distance from their work would often be considerable; but if all the inconveniences which are enumerated in the questions proposed on the above subjects should be taken into account by an intending emigrant, I doubt if any would ever quit the shores of England to come to Russia.

I annex a Report from Mr. Vice-Consul Stevens, of Nicolaieff, on many of the points I have endeavoured to treat of, which his long experience of the country will render far more valuable than anything that I could, as a recent comer, hope to contribute.

(Signed) KEITH EDWD. ABBOTT.

Odessa, November 18, 1870.

POLAND.

Lieutenant-Colonel Mansfield to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 14.)

My Lord, *Warsaw, November* 8, 1870.

WHILE forwarding the accompanying Report called for by the late Secretary of State early in the current year, I have to express my regret that it is not as complete as I could wish; but in a country where all expression of opinion on the part of the industrial population finds no means of utterance, and where the public and the Government are alike indifferent to the interests and condition of the industrial classes, it is impossible to meet the exact intention of the Circular.

I trust, however, that the inclosed may be a tolerably accurate guide to any British workman who should cast his eyes towards Poland, and furnish him with some idea of how he would be likely to prosper in this country.

I have, &c.

(Signed) C. E. MANSFIELD.

Inclosure.

Report by Lieutenant-Colonel Mansfield upon the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Kingdom of Poland.

No statistical or other information respecting the condition and status of the industrial classes in Poland is published, or even collected by authority; and the following, which is necessarily somewhat imperfect, has been entirely drawn from private sources.

In no country, perhaps, is the Government, apparently, so indifferent to the condition of the industrial classes, but, if it be said, that no Legislation exists for their benefit, it must also be admitted that there is but little interference.

Certain regulations exist in respect of apprenticeship, and formerly, various Guilds had the power of exercising vexatious rights, the latter, however, have all come to end.

Strikes are unknown, and would probably be put down with a high hand; several years since, the hands in an iron foundry exhibited a recalcitrant demeanour, but the interference of the police was obtained, and the mechanics compelled to resume work, under the threat of worse things.

Sanitary legislation does not exist. No special attention is paid to the supply of water, which is invariably drawn from pumps in the streets, or in the villages from ponds and ditches. No attempt is made at drainage in the villages; every dwelling has an open cesspool, often at the door; while in the towns all drainage is on the surface, and of the most pestilential character. In wet seasons, or during excessive heat, and, it may also be added, in severe frost, when nothing passes through the gutters, various epidemics prevail, and would doubtless be more prevalent but for the natural healthiness of the climate, the sandy soil, and, except in Warsaw, general sparseness of the population.

No regulations are in force respecting the state of repair of lodging-houses occupied by the artizan, or in regard of the over-crowding of dwellings; and there is no system of parochial relief, or of medical supervision except in a crisis, such as a very virulent outbreak of cholera.

The charitable institutions are almost confined to the barest hospital accommodation; there are but few asylums for special cases, no reformatories, or convalescent establishments, while even lunatics are kept and treated in the ordinary hospitals; and the deplorable condition of this class of patients recalls the accounts of Bedlam in the last century.

In some of the larger industrial establishments scattered over the country, often at great distances from the towns, various arrangements have been carried out for the benefit of the hands.

In most of the sugar factories there is a medical dispensary, and in several, a school for the children.

In some of the larger factories there also exists a provident fund, created by deductions from the workman's wages, from which, in case of sickness he is placed in a hospital, or, where the latter is not at hand, he receives medical attendance and medicines in his own home, as well as an allowance in money from the fund.

Complaints of overwork are almost unknown, the ordinary time is twelve hours, with two deductions of half-an-hour, and one of one hour for meals and repose, giving ten hours' actual work.

Extra work receives higher pay, and short time a corresponding diminution.

I.—*The Purchase Power of Money.*

As regards Poland it would be somewhat difficult to define the purchase power of money in relation to labour, in the form prescribed by Lord Clarendon's Circular; it may, however, be briefly stated, that the purchase power of money is greater than in England as regards the merest necessaries of food, meat, bread, vegetables, sugar, beer, and spirits. Such is not the case in respect of clothes, drugs, groceries, stationery, books, fuel, and lighting; imports from abroad and articles of home or foreign manufacture being often, on account of the tariff, at the most preposterous prices, to which the want of competition contributes in so small a degree.

It must also be borne in mind that the purchasing power of money is far greater for the native or the German mechanic than for an Englishman; the former is satisfied with an inferior style of diet and living with which few Englishmen would be content; but an English workman, who was prepared to make the necessary sacrifices, might probably make a more considerable saving than in his own country under corresponding circumstances. For instance, a brass-fitter or a weaver, with a moderate family, and receiving 8 roubles a week (about 1*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*), might make an average weekly saving of from 2*s.* to 4*s.*, without denying himself anything which is suitable for his class; perhaps, with care, even a larger sum.

The following gives the rate of wages in the only two lines of business for which there would be either a demand or an opening for the British workman in the Kingdom of Poland:—

The salary of a director or superintendent in spinning factories ranges from 666*l.* 13. 9*d.* to 160*l.* per annum, according to the works, and sometimes with a percentage on the number of pieces turned out.

Journeymen weavers for the most part execute piece work, and are paid according to the quality.

Other hands, as well as girls, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 10*d.* a-day, and children in proportion, Hand-loom owners working up the raw material at home, receive from 15 to 10 per cent. higher.

Metal Works.

	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.	4th Class.	5th Class.	6th Class.
Moulders—	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Wages for 10 hours daily work ..	3 4	2 9½	2 6	2 1	..	..
Piece work	5 5	4 10	4 6¾	4 1	..	..
Moulder Apprentices—						
10 hours daily work ..	1 3	0 8½	0 6¾	..	..	..
Piece work	1 6	0 11½	0 9½	..	..	..
Brass Founders—						
Daily wages.. ..	3 4	1 8	1 4¾	0 6¾	..	..
Piece work	5 7¾	1 8	1 4¾	0 6¾	..	..
Smiths—						
Daily wages.. ..	2 6	2 1	..	..	..	..
Piece work	3 7½	3 2½	..	..	..	..
Strikers—						
Daily wages.. ..	1 6¼	1 4¾	..	..	..	..
Piece work	2 0½	1 10⅝	..	..	..	..
Turners—						
Daily wages.. ..	3 4	2 11	2 9½	2 6	2 1	1 10
Piece work	5 6	4 9½	4 7½	4 4½	3 11	3 3
Fitters(machinebuilders)—						
Daily wages.. ..	2 11	2 9½	2 6	2 2⅛	2 1	1 8
Piece work	4 4½	3 10	3 6	3 3	3 1	2 8
Fitters (agricultural department)—						
Daily wages ..	2 6	2 1	1 8	0 11½	..	..
Piece work ..	3 7	3 11½	2 8½	0 11½	..	..
Carpenters and Model Makers—						
Daily wages ..	3 4	3 0	2 9	2 6	2 1	1 8
Piece work ..	4 0¾	3 9	3 5	3 2	2 9	2 4

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The same diet may be pursued in Poland as in England; as however trifling indispositions invariably have a feverish tendency, and often turn to typhus, care must be taken on the first symptoms of illness.

Owing to the extreme dryness of the climate it is more or less necessary to follow the diet of the natives of Poland and Russia, and to eat daily a portion of black bread, and use various aliments containing vegetable acids, such as sour and cabbage soups, pickled vegetables, &c.; neglect of the above produces a tendency to scrofula, more especially with young people.

Clothing.—The climate of Poland is not more intemperate than that of Berlin; the cold in winter rarely descends to 28 degrees of Réaumur, or in summer exceeds 30 degrees. Sheepskin coats, price about 2*l.*, are usually worn by the working-classes in winter.

Lodging.—The dwellings of the industrial classes in Poland are exceedingly bad; no effort is made to improve them or to take any steps whatever in that direction. In Warsaw, however, a workman might find fairly wholesome and by no means exorbitant lodgings at no inconvenient distance from his work, and probably not be so badly off in this respect as in the great centres in more civilized countries.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

It is difficult to generalize in respect of the quality of work executed by an industrial community; it may, however, be assumed that the Polish manufactures are considered to be better, more durable, and to possess a superior finish when compared to what is produced in the rest of the Russian Empire; and that such is the case is demonstrated by the circumstance, that at the Exhibition held at St. Petersburgh during the current year, out of 1,990 exhibitors 240 came from the Kingdom of Poland, and 122 received prizes, or were favourably mentioned.

As a general rule the Polish workman takes but little pride in his work, and requires the most constant supervision to prevent him from taking every opportunity to do as little as possible. There is little emulation and ambition, while encouragement, whether with the object of advancement or higher salary, meets with a feeble response.

The quality of work delivered, of course, commands a corresponding price. In most factories the rate of wages is determined after a few days' or weeks' probation, and every opportunity is afforded to careful and industrious workmen to obtain a fair and liberal remuneration; and, considering the relative prices, skilled labour is well paid, and unquestionably higher than in Germany.

Remarks.

The only careers in which there would be the smallest

opening for the British artizan and mechanic in Poland are the woollen and cotton factories and the metal works.

At the present moment the demand for labour in these branches is amply provided for; there is not the least difficulty in supplying vacancies from Austria and Germany; and no Englishman would do wisely to seek employment in Poland unless in answer to a definite application on the part of a manufacturer.

The German workman has attained a permanence and a position in Poland from which it would not be easy to displace him. He has the advantage of language, German being pretty generally understood among the business people; he is thrifty, and less difficult in his mode of living than the corresponding class in England, and comparatively close to his own country.

On the other hand, English workmen, if they give satisfaction, are highly prized, and can command excellent remuneration; when already some time on the Continent and acclimatized to foreign habits, they frequently make a prosperous career in Poland. Several such are known to the writer of this Report, who have realized a comfortable existence and placed their children with every prospect of similar success.

It must not be omitted that English workmen in Poland meet with no ill-will or jealousy on the part of their fellow-workmen, and, as a general rule, get on remarkably well in this respect.

The money figures in the foregoing Report are given at an average rate of exchange, the smaller sums at 7 roubles 20 copecks to the 1*l.* sterling, the larger somewhat higher.

Warsaw, November 8, 1870.

POTI.

Vice-Consul Wilkinson to Earl Granville.—(Received November 8.)

My Lord, *Poti, October* 12, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to inclose a Report respecting the condition of the industrial classes within the four provinces of Abkasia, Imeritia, Mingrelia, and the Gouriel.

I have, &c.

(Signed) ROBERT WILKINSON.

Inclosure.

Report by Vice-Consul Wilkinson respecting the Condition of the Industrial Classes within the Provinces of Abkasia, Imeritia, Mingrelia, and the Gouriel.

WITH the exception of four saw-mills established at Poti within the last three or four years, no other kind of industry exists in the four provinces of Abkasia, Imeritia, Mingrelia, and the Gouriel.

The native peasantry who have been serfs to the noblemen of this country are very poor, ignorant, and lazy, and of a weak constitution, on account of the very unhealthy state of this climate; they live on bread made of Indian-corn or millet, with a little cheese or kidney-beans: they eat meat but very seldom. The middle-class, called Azuaouri, are also ignorant, but more active; they are generally shop-keepers, some serve in the Russian army, and in the civil service. As for the noblemen, called Kuirs, but with a few exceptions they are poor and idle; they live on their estates, which give them a very small income, and never think for the future. Many hold honorary ranks in the Russian army and receive salaries from the Government.

The Russian Government of late years has established a few schools, and it is hoped that this will promote the

welfare of the inhabitants, for the present there is no industrial classes among the native population.

When the Company of the railway from Poti to Tiflis was formed about three years ago, many Englishmen were sent out from England, such as civil engineers, contractors, mechanics, workmen, &c. They passed their contracts in England for a certain time. Some have already left on account of bad health, and others come to replace them. Their number is about 150, very nearly all suffer or have suffered severely from the effects of the climate; their work is generally at a certain distance from their lodgings. Everything is very expensive in this country, such as clothing, house-rent, and provisions; a workman who gets 10*l.* per month is just able to live with economy.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
	R. c.	*s.* *d.*	
Common labourers, per day	0 80	2 0	With regard to British workmen's wages in this country, to enable him to live and save in the same proportion as at home, he should receive more than double he would in England.
Masons .. „	1 0	2 6	
Carpenters .. „	1 0	2 6	
Provisions, per lb.—			
Beef	0 10	0 3	
Bread	0 10	0 3	
Tea (common) ..	1 0	2 6	
Sugar	0 30	0 9	
Coffee	0 30	0 9	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—As nearly English as possible, tea or coffee on rising, water bad, the less taken the better, spirits injurious, wine in small quantities best beverage.

Clothing.—Warm under-clothing all the year round, good boots, good over-clothing for winter, no great difference in summer.

Lodging.—Very bad, both in construction and situation, houses all made of wood, the nearer the work the better if food can be procured.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary Remarks.—Quality of work amongst natives is bad, they take no pride therein, the only class of reliable workmen found in the country being Turks.

The exchange of late has been at 8 roubles to the 1*l.* sterling.

(Signed) ROBERT WILKINSON.

Poti, October 10, 1870.

RIGA.

Consul Grignon to Earl Granville.—(*Received December* 3.)

My Lord, *Riga, November* 26, 1870.

In compliance with the instructions contained in Lord Clarendon's Circular despatch of the 7th June, 1870, I have the honour to forward a Report on the condition and labour of the working classes in this town and neighbourhood, with four inclosures contained therein.

I have, &c.
(Signed) JAMES GRIGNON.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Grignon on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Riga.

BEFORE I attempt to reply to the questions contained in Lord Clarendon's despatch of the 7th June, 1870, I must observe that I should as little expect to see a British artizan or labourer working with or among the artizans or labourers of this country as to see a person belonging to those classes taking his place among the negroes of a field gang on a West Indian plantation. I look upon it as impossible that a decently brought up English artizan or labourer should accustom himself to the dirt, dishonesty, and slavish habits of the labouring classes of this town and neighbourhood. The only position at present held by British artizans and mechanics in these provinces are those of overlookers or overseers in factories and in matters connected with steam-engines on railways and in private establishments.

The inclosed paper marked 1 will show the daily rate of wages in different departments of labour as they have been given to me by competent persons. The actual prices of provisions are also shown, and under the head "purchase-power" an estimate of the daily expenditure of a factory hand at the present moment. I do

not, however, perceive how I can convey by figures to the mind of another person the fact that the relative value of meat is higher in this place than in England, and that one pound of beef at Riga does not contain more than one-half of the nutritious properties to be found in the same weight of a similar article in the latter country.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.			
	Local.		British.	
Wages of Labour (daily)—	Cop.	Cop.	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
Carpenter	100 to	130	3 0 to	3 10
Joiner	80	100	2 5	3 0
Smith	70	110	2 1	3 9
Bricklayer	100	130	3 0	3 10
Baker	80	100	2 5	3 0
Tailor	75	100	2 3	3 0
Shoemaker	75	90	2 3	2 8
Factory hand	60	80	1 9	2 5
Day labourer employed in loading vessels	60	80	1 9	2 5
Prices of Provisions—				
White bread ..per lb. Russ.	5	7	0 $1\frac{4}{5}$	0 $2\frac{1}{2}$
Rye bread .. „	$2\frac{1}{2}$	4	0 $0\frac{3}{8}$	0 $1\frac{2}{5}$
Beef .. .. „	7	17	0 $2\frac{1}{2}$	0 6
Mutton .. .. „	5	14	0 $1\frac{4}{5}$	0 5
Pork .. .. „	10	15	0 $3\frac{2}{5}$	0 $5\frac{2}{5}$
Butter .. .. „	25	30	0 9	0 $10\frac{4}{5}$
Salt .. .. „	2	3	0 $0\frac{4}{5}$	0 1
Coffee .. .. „	25	40	0 9	1 $2\frac{2}{5}$
Tea .. .. „	150	1,000	4 6	30 0
Sugar .. .. „	15	20	0 $5\frac{2}{5}$	0 7
Milk .. .. per quart	3	12	0 1	0 $4\frac{1}{5}$
Potatoes.. .. per 100 lbs.	75	110	2 3	3 $3\frac{3}{5}$
Herrings . .. per piece	3	5	0 1	0 $1\frac{3}{5}$
Barley-meal .. per quart	5	10	0 $1\frac{4}{5}$	0 $3\frac{4}{5}$
Flour (wheat) ..per lb. Russ.	4	6	0 $1\frac{2}{5}$	0 $2\frac{1}{5}$
Peas .. .. per quart	8	10	0 $2\frac{4}{5}$	0 $3\frac{3}{5}$

Purchase Power.

Estimated Expenditure for a single man (factory hand) for a day's living:—

	Cop.	*d.*
3 lbs. (Russ.) rye bread, at 2½ copecks ..	7½	= 2⅗
1 lb. „ meat	10	3⅗
Coffee, sugar, and milk	4	1⅖
Potatoes	1	0⅖
Butter	2	0⅘
Herring	1	0⅖
Barley-meal	2	0⅘
Total	27½	10

To the above must be added, lodging, capitation tax, clothing, and personal expenses.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

In a climate in which the thermometer ranges from 100 of Fahrenheit above zero in summer, to 40 below it in winter, and in which changes of temperature to the extent of 30 to 40 within a few hours are not unfrequent, it is evident that great care must be taken to avoid sudden chills and checks to perspiration. All houses are warmed by stove-heat, and the temperature at which they are kept during the winter months is, at first, most oppressive to strangers accustomed to open windows and fire-places. The high temperature, combined with the general want of ventilation, will sufficiently account for the peculiarly pallid and unhealthy appearance of the natives of all classes. It is at once evident that they live habitually in a vitiated atmosphere.

Diet.—Food of all kinds can be procured, but, with the exception of bread and game, everything is of a quality inferior to that procurable in Great Britain. The rye-bread of the country, in common use among the lower classes, is at first extremely unpalatable to the new-comer. Beer is to be had in abundance, and of a fair quality. The system of dram-drinking is to be avoided here as elsewhere. It prevails to a fearful extent among the lower classes.

Clothing.—The sheepskin of the country forms a warm and suitable covering for the winter months, while the very lightest clothing will suffice for the summer. Care, however, must be taken to have at hand some warm outer covering to which recourse may be had in case of

sudden changes of temperature. A certain amount of warm under-clothing is at all seasons advisable.

Lodgings.—In a town of 100,000 inhabitants crowded into flats and cellars, a workman can never be at any great distance from his work. Lodgings can of course be found, but when I say that, as a rule, house ventilation is as bad as possible, that the drainage is almost entirely effected by gutters running along the sides of the streets, and that miasmatic dirt, over-crowding, and air-poisoning exists as the normal condition of all dwellings, except those of the very highest class, the condition of the lodging occupied by the working classes may be guessed at. An apartment of two rooms with kitchen in the town, affording a sufficient lodging for a man, wife, and two or three children will cost, at the present moment, from 80 to 150 roubles, from 12*l.* to 22*l.* 10*s.* sterling, annually, free of all taxes. The capitation tax for the present year amounts to 3 roubles, or 9*s.* sterling.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The system of guilds existed in this place in all its force until about three years since, when it was abolished by the Russian Government. Under that system no workman could be employed who was not an accepted member of this craft. Work, in all its departments, was what might be expected under circumstances which made the competency of the workmen a matter of indifference. The only object was to get the work over, however performed, and a general indifference as to its character and quality pervaded every department of labour. Sufficient time has not yet elapsed to bring about any material alteration in these matters. High price and bad work still remain the characteristics of the place. I do not perceive any prospect of an immediate change in such matters, nor do I see any opening for a British artizan or mechanic, working on his own account, at this town or in this neighbourhood. In addition to the dirt and discomfort of which I have spoken above, he would have to contend with many influences unknown elsewhere. Passport questions, police interference, and a general dislike to his country and countrymen would be amongst the least of these. An English artizan or mechanic accepting an engage-

ment in this part of Russia should be most careful to specify in his written contract that the sterling sum for which he has agreed should be paid to him in this country at the current rate of exchange on England at the time of payment. Cases of the most grievous oppression and dishonesty on the part of employers of labour here have come to my knowledge under this head.

A gentleman connected with a Birmingham house, who has had occasion to bring first-class mechanics and labourers to this town from England, has furnished me with the following statement of the wages paid by him at the present moment:—

	s.	
Mechanics, 1st class—		
English wages	32	per week.
Additional at Riga	6	,,
Subsistence allowance at Riga ..	7	per diem.
Labourers	18	per week.
,, ...	5	,,

TAGANROG.

Consul Carruthers to Earl Granville.—(Received November 14.)

My Lord, *Taganrog, November* 3, 1870.

In conformity with the desire expressed in Mr. Otway's Circular of the 7th June last, I have the honour to transmit herewith a Report on the industrial classes within this Consular District.

The sterile grounds on which I have had to work will, I trust, be considered in excuse for the lack of substance that will be found therein.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. P. CARRUTHERS.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Carruthers respecting the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Taganrog.

In a Consular District devoid of manufactories, and within the circuit of which few establishments exist of any description that can afford employment for numerous artizans, a Report on Industrial Classes must necessarily be of a very restricted character, ill-suited to meet the requirements indicated by Mr. Otway's Circular of the 7th June last.

Purchase Power of Money.

No analogy exists between countries so dissimilar in habits, customs, climate, and civilization, as the United Kingdom and Southern Russia, nor can a comparison be drawn as regards the purchase power of money for subsistence between those distinct and distant parts of Europe. The bare necessaries for supporting existence, such as brown bread and meat are procurable here at less cost than in England, but, with the exception of those two articles of food, everything conducive to health and comfort, is unobtainable unless at a high cost.

Vegetables, cheese, butter, beer, coffee, tea, sugar, &c., as likewise fuel and house rent, are infinitely dearer in this country than in the United Kingdom. As concerns clothing likewise, what will suit a Russian may per chance be procured cheaper in this country than elsewhere, whereas a foreigner must pay for suitable apparel much more in Russia than abroad. In short, a Russian artizan can live tolerably well after his own fashion, for the proportionate value of 2*s.* per diem, and get drunk six days out of the seven into the bargain, whilst an Englishmen would assuredly not thrive on the regime imposed by the same daily outlay for his subsistence.

Quality of Work.

Labouring classes of these localities are limited principally to such as are employed in agricultural pursuits. Independent of the peasantry resident at villages and farming stations of the surrounding steppes, a considerable number of workmen come here in the spring of every year from the remote inland provinces to seek employment, and return home with their earnings in the autumn, after most of the field labour has terminated. These migratory labourers hire themselves usually for a certain term at so much per month; but sometimes form themselves into gangs and undertake piece work; in either case, their earnings may be computed at from 60 to 80 copecks (or 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.*) per diem, and occasionally more when taken for a short term or for an especial object. Masons, carpenters, and coopers, appear here annually in "artels" or companies, under engagement for the season to contractors or taskmasters, by whom they are employed as required. Subsistence of the foregoing workpeople is usually provided them by their employers.

The wages of town labourers occupied in loading and discharging goods, receiving, drying, or shovelling grain, &c., vary considerably; from 1 to 2 roubles (or 2*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.*) per day being freely paid, and even as much as 3 roubles (or 7*s.* 6*d.*) per diem, under circumstances of pressure, as likewise in the advanced autumn months.

Steady, handy workmen, for cabinet-making, smiths-work, shoe-making, &c., are in request but rare, and the circumscribed limits of those branches of industry in this

quarter will not admit the employment of any considerable number of hands.

Skilled artizans, such as mechanics employed for making machinery, implements of agriculture, and those occupied in foundaries at Rostoff, &c., obtain 2 roubles (say 5*s.*) or more per diem, and well-conducted workmen of an average description 1½ roubles (or 3*s.* 9*d.*) per day, independent of their subsistence. Board and lodging of such workmen costs from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* per day for each individual. The hours of labour during summer, are from 5 o'clock A.M. to 7 o'clock P.M., and in winter from 7 A.M. until dark, or up to 7 o'clock P.M.

In the coal district of the Don, miners and pit men receive from 3*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* for a day's labour, besides subsistence. Their board and lodging is computed at about 20*s.* per month per man.

Matters of Health.

Diet.—No comparison can be drawn between the food that will suffice for a Russian labourer and what would satisfy a British workman. The former is content with rye bread, a little salt and an onion, or piece of lard for breakfast. For dinner, a sour description of soup called "boarsh" or "tschee," * and in addition thereto a preparation of boiled buckwheat or millet grits, with some melted fat or hempseed oil, poured over the mess, called "karsha," and rye bread *ad libitum.* The afternoon repast usually consists of rye bread *au naturel;* and supper is a repetition of sour soup and "karsha" to a somewhat more limited extent than for dinner. Water is the usual beverage, unless "quass" † be occasionally allowed as a luxury. Field labourers are frequently allowed a small tumbler of "wotka" or Russian brandy for each person, once a day; but indoor workmen have seldom any claim to such indulgence, although the greater part of their wages is frequently spent in too free

* "Boarsh," or "tschee," made with cabbage, beetroot, or herbs, boiled together with a piece of meat, lard, or fish, as the case may be. The first named is generally made with fresh cabbage, the latter with sour kraut.

† "Quass," an acid compound of water, rye flour, or dried bread, and a certain quantity of malt, made to ferment, and afterwards allowed to tand and settle before use.

a use of that attractive potation, retailed at "wotka" or gin-shops, at about 50 copecks (or 1*s.* 3*d.*) per quart.

Clothing.—A linen or cotton shirt tied round the loins, overhanging the trousers or drawers, made of similar materials; a hat, cap, or other covering for the head, and a frequent absence of boots or shoes, constitute the usual summer attire of men. In the cold or winter season, woollen clothing is preferred, with the addition of a "shuba" or fur coat, principally of sheep's skin, which together with a cap and boots, are essential as a safeguard against severe frost.

Lodgings are provided generally by the employers of all excepting daily labourers. A stage made with boards, ranged round a heated room, on which any convenient number of individuals lie down in a row, under cover of their upper clothing, is the customary accommodation in winter. In warm weather, the bare ground and canopy of heaven, with any kind of pillow and some light covering as a protection from gnats, is looked upon as the most convenient place for repose.

Healthy, ventilated lodgings, are not obtainable by artizans in these localities, and are indeed with difficulty to be found by any class.

Summary Remarks.—Colonies in Russia.

It has been suggested that colonies of British subjects, established in Russia on a basis similar to the German colonies, founded in various parts of the Empire during and since the reign of Catherine II, might prove not only advantageous to the settlers but likewise to their adopted country. Those colonies were organized on a very liberal footing, at a time when the Southern provinces were devoid of population, and land in the absence of roads, and difficulties of communication, was of little value.

Certain districts of Crown lands were allotted to settlers, distributed into numerous settlements or villages, and to every householder of such colony from 60 to 80 acres of land were apportioned for his sole use, with liberty to bequeath or dispose of same to a member of his colony, independent of which, a determined quantity of unappropriated land was awarded to every Colonial community, to be utilised for the general good. No

taxes nor dues were exacted by the Crown during a stipulated number of years, the colonists being called on to support the expenses of their own administration only; which duty devolved on a committee elected from among themselves, subordinate to a chief nominee of the Government. These colonists formed a privileged class, exempted from military conscription and independent of the local authorities, unless the standard laws of the Empire were infringed. Such were the regulations affecting the Colonies of Ekaterinoslaff, those on the Moloschny, and in the vicinity of Mariopol, with some others, most of which were in a very prosperous state up to the late Russian war, since which the writer has had no opportunity of visiting them, nor is he aware whether their term of privilege has not lapsed, or if their organization may not have merged into the common laws of the Empire, under the reformed mode of judicature.

New settlements formed on the basis of those referred to would enjoy many advantages over their predecessors, owing to the greater facility of communication now existing, with other improvements time has wrought; and the rich soil of waste lands on the opposite side of the Azoff, in the Tchernomore, on the banks of the Kuban, Tereck, and other streams bordering the Caucasion possessions, present ample scope for agricultural enterprise, should the Russian Government be willing to appropriate those districts to foreign settlers, which, however, is doubtful, seeing that the population in Northern portions of the Empire has evinced a desire to emigrate to a more genial clime and more fertile lands. If the difficulties be considered that must arise from ignorance of the vernacular tongue, the exigences of unlooked-for formalities, and the jealousy likely to be felt by surrounding less advanced inhabitants, British Colonies would appear to offer a better futurity to settlers than does any portion of the Russian dominions.

(Signed) J. P. CARRUTHERS.

Taganrog, November 1, 1870.

SAXE-COBURG.

Mr. Barnard to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 28.)

My Lord, *Coburg, November* 20, 1870.

In answer to the Circular despatch of 7th June, I have the honour to transmit, inclosed, all the information which I have been able to procure on the subjects therein mentioned.

I much regret to be obliged to confess that, notwithstanding much consideration, I am quite at a loss to solve the question relative to the purchase power of money abroad, as compared with England, without a due knowledge of the rates of wages for labour, and of the prices of food, lodgings, &c., paid for the same articles in England.

I trust that the accompanying Tables may be found to contain the necessary information as regards those items.

The dwellings of the working class in the towns of these Duchies are very indifferent, and in the country generally speaking still less good, and consequently not as healthy as could be wished. The general health is, however, by no means bad.

The houses or lodgings are all small, and often much crowded where the families are large.

The size of such dwellings is generally very limited. In the living room, a space of 16 feet by 12, with comparatively little light, and low, both parents and children sleep. If there is no kitchen, the victuals must be cooked in the iron stove in the room. If there is a kitchen adjoining it is also made use of, partly as a sleeping room, as also serving to keep wood for fuel and different tools and implements.

It frequently occurs that poultry is also kept in the room where the family lives.

A pigsty and dunghill are always sufficiently near the entrance of the house to allow the inhabitants to enjoy their effluvium.

As far as ventilation is concerned, it appears to be useless to try to introduce it. Where it has been made a point of, it was soon made useless by stopping up the aperture made.

These houses never have cellars or drains. The yearly rent of them in the country is from 20 to 25 florins, equal to 1*l.* 16*s.* to 2*l.* 4*s.* To build such a house it would cost 500 florins, circa 36*l.* The house stands sometimes on a small piece of ground, which is used for growing potatoes. Where no field or garden adjoins, strips of land are always to be hired, which can be used for that purpose.

In towns the dwellings of the day labourers are to be hired at the rate of 20 florins, or 1*l.* 16*s.*, to 40 florins, equal to 3*l.* 12*s.* The want of such dwellings for the poorer classes being felt, many small houses, both in towns and in the country, have been lately built, but of very moderate size. Comfort is unknown.

In point of food the working classes are not well off. Bread and potatoes are their chief nourishment, of which they also make a porridge. They never eat meat unless they can afford to keep a pig, and a little bacon is eaten sometimes.

I must here remark that, comparatively speaking, little meat is eaten here, even in the houses of the middle class. Many tradespeople, even clerks in public offices, cannot afford to eat it, except perhaps on Sundays. They live principally on porridge and dumplings, potatoes, bread, and beer, of which much is consumed by all classes.

The people here are very frugal; they are generally well clad, according to their means and their class of life, and it is quite astonishing to see day labourers, with their families, all on Sundays quite clean and respectably dressed.

As there are no vineyards here, the only beverages are beer and spirits.

As regards clothing it may be well to state that the winter is usually long, and often very cold, with deep snow. Ten degrees of cold, Réaumur, are moderate; there are often 15, 18, 19. I have experienced 22 degrees below the freezing point. In summer often very hot.

On the whole the people are healthy. No dangerous illnesses are prevalent here.

In some instances, particularly in Coburg, there are trades which furnish really good articles. Since 1863, when the system of guilds was abolished, all tradesmen have felt the benefit, and competition has done much good.

There are but few manufactories in this or in the Duchy of Gotha.

A considerable trade is carried on in toys, of which very large quantities, beautifully made, are sent to England, France, and America, as well as to many other countries.

Although many complaints are heard as regards the quality of the work supplied, one great step has been taken towards improvement by the establishment of Technological Schools. This cannot fail to be of great advantage. A better education in the different branches must cause emulation, and consequent progress.

There are not many workmen who take a real pride in furnishing good work, but there are still some who deserve great praise. A great and, in fact, the principal inducement to work well is the rate of pay, which in the last years has risen here to between 50 and 100 per cent., but I fear that the superiority of the work now supplied has not advanced in the same proportion.

According to the Census of 1868 the population of the Duchy of Coburg amounted to 49,324 souls, of which 18,293 belonged to the industrial classes.

Since the incorporation of the smaller German States with the North German Confederation, each native is at liberty to settle and seek his livelihood in any part of Germany, so that there is an unceasing and general change of journeymen of all branches of industry, and the number of them here seems to increase.

There are no spinning-cotton manufactories in these Duchies.

The Duchy of Gotha is not only larger, having a population of 119,245 souls, but much richer. Great quantities of grain are grown there; the forests are extensive and very productive. Relative to food and every other article, the general prices are stated to be one-third higher than here.

As there are no manufactories there which do not exist in the Duchy of Coburg, I have refrained from transmitting separate information as to the wages for labour and the prices of food and dwellings of the industrial classes in that duchy.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CHARLES T. BARNARD.

(Table No. 1.)—Prices of Grain, Meat, and Beverages.

Average Price per Bushel from 1860 to 1869.	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	Fl. k.	s. d.	Fl. k.	s. d.	Fl. k.	s. d.	Fl. k.	s. d.
1860	2 14	3 8½	1 39½	2 6½	1 51¼	3 1½	1 9	1 11¾
1861	2 6	3 6	1 40	2 11½	1 33	2 6½	0 54	1 6
1862	2 2½	3 4¾	1 40	2 11½	1 23¾	2 3½	0 47	1 3½
1863	1 48	3 1	1 20½	2 7½	1 18½	1 2½	0 48¾	1 4
1864	1 46½	3 0½	1 10¾	1 11½	1 15½	2 1½	0 58½	1 7½
1865	1 36½	2 8½	1 10½	1 10¼	1 14	2 0½	0 51¼	1 9½
1866	1 55¼	3 2½	1 27½	2 5½	1 37½	2 8½	0 55¾	1 10½
1867	2 27	4 1	1 58¾	3 5½	1 52½	3 2¾	1 2¼	1 8¾
1869	2 17	3 9¾	1 58½	3 5¼	2 0¼	3 2	1 7	1 10¼
1869	1 48¾	3 4½	1 37	2 8¼	1 50	3 1½	1 11	2 1

Articles of Food.

		Fl. k.		s. d.
Brown bread (rye) ..	per lb.	0 3½	=	0 3¾
Bread (wheat)	„	0 8		0 2¾
Beef	„	0 15		0 5½
Veal	„	0 13		0 4¼
Mutton	„	0 14		0 4¾
Pork	„	0 17		0 5½
Ham	„	0 36		1 0
Sausage	„	0 20		0 6¾
Butter	„	0 12		0 4
		to 0 16	to	0 5¼

Beverages.

Beer	.. per quart	0 6		0 2
Ditto	.. per pint	0 3		0 1
Brandy*	.. „	0 14		0 4¾
		to 0 20	to	0 6¾

* This is a distilment of rye and potatoes.

(Table No. 2.)—RATES of Wages and Hours of Labour.

Trades.	Daily Wages.						Number of Hours.		Remarks.
	Foreman.		Journeymen.		Day Labourers.		Summer.	Winter.	
	Fl. k.	s. d.	Fl. k.	s. d.	Fl. k.	s. d.			
Gasworks	1 45	3 0	0 50	1 4	0 42	1 2	10	10	All journeymen are entitled to board and lodging.
Brick-kiln	1 45	3 0	0 50	1 4	0 42	1 2	10	10	
Basketmaker	..	..	1 30 to 2 0	2 6 to 3 4	..	..	10	10	
Cotton and linen weaver	..	..	1 45 to	1 3½ to 1 6	..	..	12	12	
Porcelain manufactory	1 45	3 0	..	..	0 36 to 0 48	1 0 to 1 4	10	10	All workmen are allowed half-an-hour for breakfast, one hour for dinner, and half-an-hour in the afternoon, for refreshment.
Printers' colours	..	..	..	..	0 48	1 4	10	10	
Ultramarine fabric	1 45	3 0	..	..	0 42	1 6	10	10	
Wood carver	..	..	1 45	3 0	..	..	14	14	
Furniture fabric	..	..	1 0 to 2 0	1 8 to 3 4	..	..	12	12	
Woollen knitting-yarn spinning	..	..	1 30 to 2 0	2 6 to 3 4	..	..	12	12	
Coachmaker	..	..	2 0 to 2 30	3 1½ to 3 11¾	..	..	10	10	
Iron foundry	1 45	3 0	1 30	2 6	0 42	1 2	10	10	
Dyer	..	..	0 52	1 5½	..	..	10	10	
Cement fabric	..	..	0 42	1 2	..	..	10	10	
Chandler, soap-boiler	..	..	0 48	1 4	..	..	Varies	Varies	
Brewer	..	..	1 30	2 6	..	..	Varies	Varies	
Maltster	..	..	0 48	1 4	..	..	10	10	
Pressed leather fabric	..	..	0 52	1 5	..	..	10	10	
Currier	..	..	1 0 to 1 24	1 8 to 2 4	..	..	10	10	

Trades.	Daily Wages.						Number of Hours.		Remarks.
	Foremen.		Journeymen.		Day Labourers.		Summer.	Winter.	
			Fl. k.	£ s. d.	Fl. k.	s. d.			
Blacksmith	..	..	1 0	0 8	..	..	12	12	
Bricklayer	..	..	to 1 8	to 1 2¾					
Carpenter	..	..	0 42	1 2	0 38	1 0¾	12	10	
Plasterer	..	..	0 54	1 6	..	..	12	10	
Upholsterer	..	..	0 45	1 3	0 36	1 0	12	10	
House painter	..	..	1 20	2 2½	..	..	12	10	
Locksmith	..	..	1 0	1 8	..	..	12	10	
Tinman, whitesmith	..	..	1 10	1 11½	..	..	14	10	
Coppersmith	..	..	1 10	1 11½	..	..	14	10	
Woodcutter in forests	..	..	2 0	3 4	..	..	13	13	
Joiner	..	..	1 0	1 8	..	..	Varies	Varies	
Sculptor	..	..	1 20	2 2½	..	..	14	14	
Furrier	..	..	3 0	5 0	..	..	Varies	Varies	
Musical instrument maker	..	..	to 3 8	to 5 2¾					
Hatter	..	..	1 45	3 0	..	..	12	12	
Jeweller	..	..	to 2 0	to 3 4					
Bell foundry	..	..	2 0	3 4	..	..	12	12	
Brazier	..	..	to 3 0	5 0					
Glazier	..	..	2 30	4 2	..	..	12	12	
File cutter	..	..	to 3 0	to 5 0					
Hair dresser	..	..	6 0	10 0	..	..	12	12	
			to 7 0	to 11 0					
			1 30	2 6	..	..	Varies	Varies	
			to 1 45	to 3 0					
			1 30	2 6	..	..	12	12	
			to 1 45	to 3 0					
			2 15	3 9	..	..	13	13	
			to 6 0	to 10 0					
			1 45	3 0	..	..	13	13	
			4 0	6 8	..	..	Varies	Varies	
			to 4 30	to 7 6					

Trades.	Daily Wages.				Number of Hours.		Remarks.
	Foremen.		Journeymen.		Day Labourers.		Summer.	Winter.	
			Fl. k.	s. d.	Fl. k.	s. d.			
Turner	..	..	1 30 to 1 45	2 6 to 3 0	..	..	12	10	
Confectioner	..	..	1 45 to 2 30	3 0 to 4 2	..	..	12 to 14	12 to 14	
Gunmaker	..	..	1 30 to 1 45	2 6 to 3 0	..	..	12	7	
Glover	..	..	1 30 to 1 45	2 6 to 3 0	..	..	Piece work	Piece work	
Bookbinder.	..	..	2 0 to 2 30	3 4 to 4 2	..	..	12	12	
Lithographer	..	..	2 0 to 2 30	3 4 to 4 2	..	..	12	12	
Cooper	..	..	1 30 to 1 45	2 6 to 3 0	..	..	Piece work	Piece work	
Brushmaker	:	..	3 30	5 10	..	..	13	13	
Combmaker	..	..	2 0	3 4	..	..	14	14	
Butcher	..	..	1 30 to 1 45	2 6 to 3 0	..	..	Varies	Varies	
Cutler	..	..	1 30 to 1 45	2 6 to 3 0	..	..	Piece work	Piece-work	
Miller	..	..	2 0 to 2 30	3 4 to 4 2	..	..	Varies	Varies	
Nailsmith	..	..	1 30 to 2 0	2 6 to 3 4	..	..	13	13	
Fringe-maker	..	..	1 15 to 1 30	2 0¼ to 2 6	..	..	12	12	
Saddler	..	..	2 0 to 9 0	3 4 to 12 2¾	..	..	13	13	
Tailor	..	..	2 30 to 3 0	4 2 to 5 0	..	..	Piece work	Piece work	
Shoemaker	..	..	2 30	4 2	..	..	Piece work	Piece work	

Remarks.	Daily Wages.						Number of Hours.		Remarks.
	Foremen.		Journeymen.		Day Labourers.		Summer.	Winter.	
			Fl. k.	s. d.	Fl. k.	s. d.			
Chimney-sweeper, weekly ..	..	..	2 0	3 4	..	..	..	..	Board and lodging.
Farrier	..	..	1 15	2 0¼	..	..	13	13	
Ropemaker	..	..	1 15 to 2 0	2 0¼ to 3 4	..	..	Piece work	Piece work	
Stocking manufacturer ..	..	..	1 30 to 3 30	2 6 to 5 10	..	..	13	13	
Cloth-weaver	..	..	4 0 to 6 0	6 2½ to 11 3	..	..	12	13	
Gilder	..	..	4 15 to 5 0	6 7½ to 8 4	..	..	12	12	
Cigar-maker	..	..	6 0 to 6 0	10 0 to 10 0	..	..	12	7*	* In these establishments women are employed at 24 k., equal to 8*d.* daily. Girls, who help to pack, receive from 8*d.* to 10*d.* daily.
Potter	..	..	6 0 to 7 0	10 0 to 11 8	..	..	13	13	
Baker	..	..	1 45 to 2 0	3 0 to 3 4	..	..	Varies	Varies	
Toy fabric	..	..	1 45 to 3 30	3 0 to 3 10	1 0 to 1 45	1 8 to 3 0	12	10*	
Watchmaker	..	..	2 30	4 0¾	..	..	12	13	
Cardmaker	..	..	..	..	0 52	1 5½	Varies	Varies	
Papier-maché toy maker ..	..	..	..	..	1 30	2 6	Piece work	Piece work*	
Fancy basket-maker ..	..	..	..	..	1 30 to 2 0	2 6 to 3 4	12	12*	
Vinegar fabric	..	..	..	..	0 45	1 3	10	10	
Paper mill	..	..	..	..	0 36 to 0 48	1 0 to 1 4	10	10	
Clay and Chamotte ware ..	..	..	..	..	0 36 to 1 8	1 0 to 1 11½	10	10	
Bread fabric	..	..	..	..	0 48	1 4	Varies	Varies	

Trades.	Daily Wages.						Number of Hours.		Remarks.
	Foremen.		Journeymen.		Day Labourers.		Summer.	Winter.	
	Fl. k.	s. d.	Fl. k.	s. d.	Fl. k.	s. d.			
Mechanical spinning and weaving	1 30 to 1 45	2 6 to 3 0	..	..	0 50 to 1 0	1 3½ to 3 0	..	..	This establishment is small, and not in the Duchy of Coburg, but in Bavaria.
Varnisher	..	..	5 0 to 6 0	6 1 to 7 1½	..	..	12	7	
Pastry cook	..	..	1 45 to 2 30	3 0 to 4 2	..	..	14	12	
Dyer and cotton printer ..	..	..	5 0 to 9 0	8 4 to 15 1	..	..	12	12	
Day labourers generally—									
Men	..	..	..	..	1 0 to 0 48	1 8 to 1 4	..	..	
Women	..	..	..	..	0 24	0 8	..	..	

SAXONY.

Mr. Burnley to Earl Granville.—(Received December 5.)

My Lord, *Dresden, December* 1, 1870.

WITH reference to Lord Clarendon's Circular despatch of the 7th June last, I have now the honour to forward to your Lordship, as desired, a further Report on the industrial classes in Saxony, with which I have been favoured by the Dresden Chamber of Commerce, to whom I addressed myself for precise information on the subject.

On consulting with Dr. Rentoch, the Secretary of the Chamber, we both decided that it would be quite impossible to work out the summary table at the end so as to give a clear idea in few words of the relative values in both countries, without the adoption of algebraical formulas. It appeared, therefore, to me far more practical to give the actual prices as they exist, when a safe comparison could be made in England on the spot with the prices as they rule there.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. HUME BURNLEY.

Inclosure.

Further Report by Mr. Burnley on the Condition of the Industrial Classes of Saxony.

IN continuation of what has been previously written on the state of industrial classes, I would beg to make the following additional remarks, as far as I am able to do so:—

With reference in the first place to the purchase power of money, I would here observe that the scale of wages given in the first Report for six working days of 12 hours each, has been subjected to further scrutiny, and found in the main correct except in a few branches, where the minimum rate has increased. I have been assured from various sides that the lowest rates corre-

sponded a year ago to what was actually the case, but that it was even then hardly possible to obtain the labour necessary on such slender wages; hence it was found expedient to raise them. Since the outbreak of the war wages have had a tendency to drop, but the present period must be looked on as altogether exceptional, for this reason: the new Tables which follow, made out, as desired, in British currency, show what the rate of wages was immediately before the outbreak of the war (in the beginning of July).

SCALE of Wages for Six Working Days, of Twelve hours each, for Operatives above the Age of 14.

	Males.				Females.			
	Min.		Max.		Min.		Max.	
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
Bakers	6	0	13	6	..		..	
Barbers	6	0	18	0	..		..	
Cotton spinners	3	9	12	0	2	4¾	5	0
Miners	3	9	12	0	..		..	
Glovers	5	3	18	0	4	6	7	6
Breweries	7	6	24	0	..		..	
Makers of flowers	4	0	15	0	3	0	15	0
Coopers	6	0	18	0	..		..	
Bookbinders	7	6	15	0	3	6	7	6
Printers, type-setters, &c. ..	12	0	21	0	..		..	
Boys and girls	3	0	6	0	4	0	12	0
Brushmakers	6	0	12	0	..		..	
Chemical products	6	0	21	0	3	7½	7	2½
Chocolate manufactures ..	4	6	24	0	4	0	9	0
Chicory ditto	4	6	15	0	4	0	9	0
Cigar workers	6	0	18	0	3	9	9	0
Fingerboard makers	6	0	18	0	..		..	
Confectioners	9	0	18	0	..		..	
Slop shops	3	0	24	0	4	6	12	0
Asphalt-paper roofers ..	12	0	18	0	..		..	
Turners	7	6	18	0	..		..	
Iron foundries	7	6	30	0	..		..	
Dyers	6	0	18	0	..		..	
Filecutters	9	0	15	0	..		..	
Fishermen	6	0	12	0	..		..	
Butchers	6	0	18	0	..		..	
Coiffeurs	3	9	24	0	3	0	12	0
Gardeners	6	0	18	0	3	0	6	0
Brassfounders	6	0	28	6	..		..	
Glaziers	6	0	15	0	..		..	
Glass-works	7	6	63	0	..		..	
Bellfounders	6	0	25	6	..		..	
Gold and silversmiths ..	6	0	27	0	..		..	

	Males.				Females.			
	Min.		Max.		Min.		Max.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Goldbeaters	6	0	25	6	4	0	10	6
Gilt-cornice makers	4	6	18	0	3	0	8	3
Engravers	6	0	24	3	..		..	
Bronze workers	4	6	22	6	..		..	
Cast-steel works	7	6	42	0	..		..	
Wood carvers	6	0	7	6	..		..	
Smelting works and blast furnaces	6	0	30	0	..		..	
Hatters	6	0	24	0	3	6	9	9
Instrument makers	6	0	18	0	..		..	
Worsted spinning mills ..	5	0	30	0	3	9	11	0
Combmakers	6	0	15	0	..		..	
Tinmen	6	0	24	0	..		..	
Button-makers	4	6	15	0	3	0	7	0
Basket-makers	6	0	15	0	..		..	
Furriers	4	6	15	0	3	0	9	9
Coppersmiths	6	0	18	0	..		..	
Varnishers	6	0	21	0	..		..	
Lampmakers	6	0	27	0	..		..	
Tanners	9	0	18	0	..		..	
Linen and clothmakers ..	4	0	10	6	2	4¾	5	7½
Calloon workers	4	6	24	0	3	7½	15	0
Lithographers	6	0	24	0	..		..	
Makers of machinery ..	6	0	36	0	..		..	
House painters and decorators .	6	0	24	0	..		..	
Bricklayers	7	6	18	0	..		..	
Mechanicians and opticians ..	8	0	36	0	..		..	
Cutlery	6	0	24	0	..		..	
Meerschaum workers ..	4	0	30	0	3	0	12	0
Capmakers	6	0	15	0	4	6	8	3
Pinmakers	6	0	13	0	..		..	
Nailers	3	0	10	6	..		..	
Nail manufactories	3	9	15	0	..		..	
Papermakers	4	0	33	0	3	0	9	0
Cardboard-makers	6	0	18	0	4	0	7	0
Photographers	9	0	36	0	..		..	
Porcelain manufactories—								
Workmen	6	0	12	0	3	0	7	6
Artists	12	0	42	0	6	0	27	0
Lacemen and embroiderers ..	6	0	10	6	3	0	6	0
Powdermills	9	0	12	0	..		..	
Harnessmakers	7	6	13	6	..		..	
Turkey-red dyers	6	0	18	0	3	0	6	0
Fire-engine makers	6	0	27	0	..		..	
Saddlers	7	6	15	0	..		..	
Boatmen	6	0	18	0	..		..	
Umbrella-makers	7	6	15	0	4	0	15	0
Locksmiths and gunsmiths ..	7	6	15	0	..		..	
Farriers	7	6	15	0	..		..	
Tailors	6	0	18	0	3	0	12	9

	Males.		Females.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Sawmills	9 0	24 0	4 6	6 0
Chimneysweeps	9 0	18 0	..	..
Shoemakers	6 0	10 6	3 0	7 0
Distillers	9 0	16 6	..	..
Soapboilers	9 0	15 0	..	..
Rope-makers	7 6	13 6	..	..
Wire-sieve makers	6 0	10 6	..	..
Toymakers..	3 0	12 0	1 6	6 0
Coal mines—				
By piece-work	6 0	13 6	4 6	6 0
Day-work of 8 hours ..	0 7½	1 10	..	..
Stone breakers, in summer ..	9 0	15 0	..	..
Ditto, in winter	6 0	7 6	..	..
Potteries	6 0	30 0	4 6	9 0
Masons, in summer	9 0	30 0	..	..
Ditto, in winter	6 0	18 0	..	..
Straw-hat makers	..	..	3 7½	7 6
Stickmakers	6 0	21 0	4 6	6 9
Hosiers	6 0	9 0	..	..
Plaster of Paris workers ..	9 0	18 0	..	..
Framemakers	6 0	12 0	..	..
Day labourers	6 0	12 0	3 0	7 6
Paperhanging factories ..	6 0	27 0	3 0	7 0
Paperhangers and upholsterers .	6 0	12 0	..	..
Tar, colour, and paraffine works	9 0	13 2½	..	..
Claymakers in potteries ..	7 0	9 0	..	..
Joiners and gunstock makers ..	6 0	15 0	..	..
Potters	6 0	18 0	..	..
Clothmakers	5 0	18 0	3 0	7 6
Clothcutters	7 6	15 0	..	..
Watchmakers	10 6	30 0	..	..
Gilders on wood	7 6	18 0	..	..
Wheelwrights	7 6	16 6	..	..
Weavers	4 0	18 0	3 0	7 0
Tanners	7 6	18 0	..	..
Woolspinners	4 6	12 0	3 0	7 6
Slate-roofers and tilers ..	9 0	15 0	..	..
Carpenters..	4 6	18 0	..	..
Tinfounders	6 0	10 6	..	..
Hand-tool makers	6 0	12 0	..	..

I would here refer to the previous Report for information as to the position of the workmen, to board and lodging, and wages of children, and proceed to consider the price of provisions, restricting myself altogether to the food of the lower and middle classes.

It must be borne in mind that the German workman

is much more frugal and simple in his habits than the English one, and that a much smaller amount of meat and nitrogenous substances is consumed. No doubt this is to be deplored, inasmuch as the formation of muscular tissue depends more on the animal food consumed than on farinaceous substances. The latter are, nevertheless, the staple of the German workman's food, to which he adds a somewhat thin coffee, very often mixed with chicory. Tea is a rarity in all Germany. The usual beverage is a thin beer, which has not the remotest comparison to English porter or stout, and, as a necessary evil, brandy is used to support the system in out-door work. The use of wine, frequent among the lower classes in South Germany and on the Rhine, is unknown in Saxony. It may not be out of place to note here the difference which exists between town and country. The diet of an artizan in the towns is a much more rational one, meat being oftener used.

The average dietary is regulated as follows :—

At 6 A.M., two or three cups of moderately strong coffee, with one-eighth of a lb. of white bread.

At 9 A.M., about half a lb. of bread, with butter and cheese, not seldom with the adjunct of brandy, for those who have to work in the open air.

At 12, soup, with perhaps one-third of a lb. of meat mixed with vegetables of all kinds, cooked generally more substantially than in England, where they are mostly boiled in water. Roast meat as a rule is only to be seen on Sundays and festival days.

At 4 P.M., either coffee and bread and butter, or the same with cheese, beer, or brandy.

At 7 P.M., about half a lb. of bread, with butter and cheese (seldom meat), and a thin beer.

Among the workmen the average nourishment is as follows :—

At 6 A.M., two or three cups of coffee, with a quarter of a lb. of white or rye bread.

At 9 A.M., half a lb. of bread and butter, or bread with bacon or cheese, and, as a rule, brandy.

At 12, those workmen who do not go home for their meals, generally go to a neighbouring tavern and get a dinner of meat and vegetables for about 3*d.* or 4*d.* If they bring their dinner with them, it consists of bread and butter, with bacon or sausage, and the never-failing

brandy; or, if it is brought by their wives or children, it consists of warm vegetables, with meat and a little bread.

At 4 P.M., half a lb. of bread and butter, with now and then cheese, bacon, and brandy.

At 7, half a lb. of bread and butter, with a thin beer, and very often potatoes in their skins, with or without butter.

Among the labouring population of the country, and more particularly the agricultural labourers, who, besides their annual wages, have board and lodging in the house of the employer, as well as among the labourers hired by the day, the average diet is as follows:—

At 5, and in summer half-past 4, soup thickened with flour, bread and buttter, and, as an exception, coffee.

At 9 A.M., bread, butter, and cheese, with the usual adjunct of brandy.

At 12, soup, vegetables seasoned with something, meat (quarter to half lb.) as a rule only on Sundays and festival days, but during harvest daily.

At 4 P.M., bread and butter, with now and then, according to the severity of the work, cheese and brandy.

7 to 8 P.M., beer, with a thick meal soup, bread and butter; and in winter potatoes and butter. The diet, as but a small amount of nitrogenous matter enters into it, is tolerably copious, with bread *ad libitum*.

If we go a step lower on the scale, we come to the cottage industries of the Iron Mountains. Here the nourishment is of the most meagre kind, mostly a thin, diluted coffee, with bread and potatoes all the year round. Meat is a great rarity in this class.

With regard to clothing the German is probably on a par with the Englishman, except that perhaps the former looks too much to cheapness, and in the end finds that he expends as much in patching up his clothes as if he had originally bought a stouter article.

The climacteric conditions of our warmer summers and colder winters require, more than in England, a change from the linen clothing of summer to the woollens of winter.

It is a good trait in the Saxon character that the lower orders attach considerable importance to a neat and clean outward appearance; even the poorest man has his complete Sunday suit. Here and there this is carried to excess among the women, who evince a fondness

for outward show, to the detriment of their originally simple habits.

The visitor on a Sunday in some of the poorest districts of Saxony would hardly realize to himself how meagrely this class live from day to day, and will naturally regret that they should attach more importance to a showy appearance than to procuring the more solid necessaries of life.

With reference to lodgings much is, no doubt, still to be desired, yet, in comparison with other countries, Saxony contrasts favourably.

The Saxon workman seeks to give an air of cleanliness and neatness both to the exterior and interior of his dwelling; and as there is a natural tendency in the Germanic race to acquire property, or something that they may call their own, the evils of large barrack lodgings are obviated, at least in the lowlands, so that a house has rarely more than one or two families in it.

The conditions of the daily labourer are of course very varied, depending greatly on the amount of his means, and on the position he occupies with regard to his employer, who, according to custom, gives him very often both board and lodging. In factories the case is different. To arrive at any tangible factor we must go down to the lowest classes. The single man here contents himself generally with one room, which he not unfrequently shares with others. The family man, who must of necessity have a room with a sleeping apartment attached, and a small kitchen, pays an annual rent,

	£	s.		£	s.
In the lowlands of	1	10	to	3	0
In the smaller towns (up to 5,000 inhabitants) .	1	16		3	12
In the middling-sized towns (up to 30,000 ditto)	2	5		4	10
In the large towns	3	0		6	0

Where the pretentious aim at something better, the rentals vary according to the size, height, and position of the dwelling.

For example, the annual rental of a dwelling containing two rooms, with stoves, a detached room with kitchen and cellarage, would be,

	£	s.		£	s.	
In the lowlands	3	0	to	6	0	
In smaller towns..	3	6		6	15	
In the middle towns	5	8		7	10	
In the large towns	6	0		9	0	or 10*l.*

With regard to the purchase price of real property, the data at hand are of a less reliable character, but I think I may safely affirm that the value of house property is calculated on an annual rental of at least 5 per cent. on the capital outlay, as mortgages below this rate of interest are difficult to be obtained, and only under exceptional security.

The next subject relates to the prices of provisions, clothing, and firing, and here again the line must be drawn between the place of production and the place of consumption. The minimum rates on the following Table refer, for instance, to provisions of all kinds in the lowlands, and especially to those parts at a distance from the large towns, for fuel to those parts in the immediate neighbourhood of woods and coal-pits; the maximum rates, on the other hand, to those large towns and industrial centres which do not draw their supplies from near at hand. In order to be as precise as possible I would beg to state distinctly that the several prices refer to a period between the 10th and 30th October, 1870. The present war has not had any notable influence on prices generally, as the theatre of operations was in October some 500 miles distant from Saxony, and the German armies got but a very small portion of their supplies from this country.

PRICES of PROVISIONS of all kinds ($^{10th}_{30th}$ October, 1870), in English Weights and Measures:—

		Minimum.		Maximum.	
		s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
Rye	per cwt.	15	0	16	4
Wheat	„	20	0	21	3
Rye meal	per lb.	0	1¾	0	2¼
Wheaten flour	„	0	2¾	0	3¼
Rye bread	„	0	1¼	0	1½
White bread	„	0	1¾	0	2
Potatoes	per cwt.	2	6	3	3
Rice	per lb.	0	3	0	5¾
Barley	„	0	2¾	0	5¼
Peas	„	0	1½	0	2
Lentils	„	0	1½	0	2
Butter	„	1	0	1	3
Cheese	„	1	3	1	4
Eggs	per schoek (60 eggs)	2	10	3	6
Milk	per litre	0	1	0	2¼
Coffee	per lb.	0	9	1	10
Sugar	„	0	5	0	10
Tea	„	2	6	3	9

		Minimum.	Maximum.
		s. d.	s. d.
Beef	„	0 $5\frac{3}{4}$	0 9
Veal	„	0 $4\frac{3}{4}$	0 $5\frac{1}{2}$
Mutton	„	0 $4\frac{3}{4}$	0 6
Pork	„	0 $5\frac{3}{4}$	0 $6\frac{1}{2}$
Sausage	„	0 $5\frac{3}{4}$	0 9
Ham	„	1 0	1 3
Bacon	„	0 9	1 0
River fish	„	0 5	0 6
Sea fish	„	0 5	0 7
Herrings	each	0 $0\frac{3}{4}$	0 $1\frac{1}{2}$
Brandy	per litre	0 6	1 0
Wine	„	0 6	1 6
Small beer	„	0 1	0 1
Lager beer	„	0 $1\frac{3}{4}$	0 $1\frac{3}{4}$

Fuel.

		Minimum.	Maximum.
		s. d.	s. d.
Firewood	per cwt.	0 $7\frac{1}{2}$	1 9
Coals	„	0 4	0 10
Brown coal	„	0 3	0 6

Price of Clothing, especially of the Cheaper and Coarser kinds.

	Minimum.	Maximum.
	s. d.	s. d.
1 shirt	2 0	4 3
1 chemise	2 0	4 4
1 pair of men's cotton stockings ..	0 4	0 6
1 pair of men's woollen stockings ..	0 9	1 0
1 pair of women's cotton stockings ..	0 $7\frac{1}{2}$	1 0
1 pair of women's woollen stockings ..	1 0	1 $7\frac{1}{2}$
1 pair of drawers (cotton)	2 5	4 $1\frac{1}{2}$
1 pair of trousers (linen)	3 9	6 0
1 ditto (cloth)	7 6	16 0
1 waistcoat	2 0	4 0
1 linen coat	3 9	6 9
1 cloth coat	11 6	20 0
1 winter great-coat	20 0	36 0
1 cap	1 6	2 6
1 felt hat	3 3	6 0
1 pair of boots	4 6	7 6
Flannel, per yard	1 4	1 11
Calico, ditto	0 6	0 9
Poil de chevre, ditto	0 6	0 10
Calendered goods, ditto	0 6	0 10
1 woman's jacket	6 0	9 0
1 small shawl	9 0	15 0
1 pair of women's boots	4 6	7 6
1 handkerchief for the head	1 0	1 6

With reference to the last point, as to the nature and quality of work, much improvement is still to be desired. Here, as elsewhere, there are but a small number of workmen who put any particular pride in turning out exceptionally good work, although many opportunities for emulation exist in the factories. The free trade in industries established since 1862 has done much to improve the powers of the workman both in the matter of taste as well as cheapness, but the time has been too short, and competition not sufficiently powerful, to do away with all the old abuses.

[It is to be observed here, in explanation, that up to 1862 every workman was bound to be a member of a guild, or innung, before he could enter on a profession. By the new law this has been abolished, and every one is free to practise his particular trade without let or hindrance.—*Translator.*]

What is particularly reprehensible is a certain amount of dishonesty which exists in several branches of industry, as in the linen and cotton trade, among the straw-plaiters and makers of toys, and other such articles delivered in large quantities, where the vendor does not give the full number of yards or the numerical amount of articles for which full payment is asked, with the hope that in the mass such trickery will be overlooked. This has done much to damage the old-established fame of Saxon workmanship and Saxon rectitude.

LEIPZIG.

Consul-General Crowe to Earl Granville.—(Received December 5.)

My Lord, *Leipzig, November* 29, 1870.

In reply to Mr. Under-Secretary Odo Russell's despatch of the 3rd instant, and in accordance with the request contained in Mr. Under-Secretary *A. Otway's* Circular of June 7, I have the honour to forward a Report on the position of the labouring classes in Saxony with particular reference to these classes in the district under my charge.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. A. CROWE.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul-General Crowe on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Saxony.

Before entering fully upon the task of explaining and illustrating the condition of the working classes in that part of Saxony which forms the Leipzig district, it seems not only appropriate but necessary that a rapid sketch of the history of the Saxon people during the present century should be given.

Saxony is the most thrifty State of the German Customs. Union. With little more than two millions of inhabitants, it has a large mining and manufacturing population, and prosperous industrial and commercial towns. Leipzig, to which the trade of Saxony converges, is the mart and emporium of Central Germany, and regulates much of the interchange between foreign nations beyond the limits of the Customs Union. For many centuries celebrated for annual fairs to which traders came from all parts of the European continent, it gained additional influence as a centre of commerce during the wars of revolutionary France. The blockade enforced by the first Napoleon not only gave importance

to the fairs, it also gave a decisive impulse to Saxon industry; and it is characteristic of the fitness of the country for the extension of manufacturing enterprise, that neither the cessation of the blockade, nor the pernicious system of prohibition embodied in the Prussian tariffs till 1833, were able permanently to affect its welfare. In 1833, Saxony was admitted into the Zollverein, and from that time we may date her progress in the arts of mining, smelting, and spinning.

It is curious to contrast the rapid development of Saxony, as an industrial state, with the constitution under which that development was made; still more curious to note how persistently time-worn legislation and customs were preserved. Frugal, hard working, and abstemious, the Saxons were more generally engaged as artizans and mechanics in proportion to the population, than any people in Germany. It was calculated, I believe correctly, that every thirteenth man was master, journeyman, or apprentice to some corporate trade. It was in Saxony that the domestic, as distinguished from the factory system, was longest preserved; it was in Saxony that improvements in steam and machinery were slowest in making way. Steam-engines when first introdnced were only used for mining and engineering purposes or as motors for spinneries. Previous to 1846 the hand loom was the only known instrument for weaving. In no country was the corporate spirit of the earlier times more instinct with life; nowhere was it found more difficult to compass the abolition of guilds. Till ten years ago, with the exception of country masons, carpenters, sweeps, and bakers of rye bread, there was not a man of any craft who did not necessarily belong to a guild. The number of masters—frequently, the number of journeymen—was strictly limited. Wages were regulated by custom, being the same for the good, the middling, or the still less skilful hand. Mastery was dependent upon a long course of travel, years of apprenticeship and examination. It was considered a prodigious portent and innovation that the Saxon Government in 1840 should have taken upon itself to license one tailor, one shoemaker, one baker of wheaten bread, butcher, smith, wheelwright, saddler, carpenter, glazier, rope maker, and cooper, in places where none such had previously existed. The guilds had extensive

privileges, which this measure seemed to threaten. All country masters till then had been bound to take the freedom of a town guild; and none of them, except weavers, stocking makers, masons, carpenters, sweeps, butchers, smiths, and wheelwrights, were allowed to engage apprentices.

The measures which really undermined the guilds were passed to facilitate the establishment of factories; the causes which precipitated their fall were the construction of railways, the consequent extension of markets, and the demand for cheaper and better wares. As the trade in coals increased, and machine spinning superseded hand spinning, the power-loom began to oust the hand-loom and cottage weaving to pine. As the factory system expanded the guilds shrank, and the population out-grew the old and stationary corporations. From 1840 to 1850 the factory system arose. From 1850 to 1860 the guilds languished. In 1861 they were abolished by law.

Ten years have elapsed since the change; and much in the position of the working classes has been altered; but it would be a mistake to suppose that the transition from a state of rigid and unelastic tutelage to one of comparative freedom has produced all that may be expected. The benefits that have accrued are nothing to those that must necessarily ensue from the lapse of years; and the picture which we get of the working classes now is not that which we shall get hereafter, when the legislation for 1861, combined with that of the Federal Parliaments, shall have removed all the fetters, and healed all the wounds of an earlier date. Nothing is more remarkable in the meanwhile than, that parallel with the efforts made to free labour from all artificial interference, we have to notice the agitation of a class of men, who, under the guise of reformers, seek to re-establish in a new shape the old constraint of the guilds. That the state has to protect the working classes against the despotism of capital, that it is the duty of trades unions to establish tariffs of prices which shall exclude piece work, ignore skill, and place the bad and the middling hand on the same level as the good, is the creed of a party which now wields a certain power in Saxony. The two powers which struggled for the maintenance and removal of guilds before 1861, held

widely divergent opinions as to the effects of their abolition. It was believed on the one hand that a ruinous competition would immediately set in, on the other that an influx of sudden and blissful prosperity might be expected. Technical skill, it was thought, would diminish, and the small master would be instantly ruined by the capitalist. On the other hand it was urged that labour would at once become cheaper by division and a novel use of machinery. The truths which lay in all these propositions were undeniable; but the application of these truths was not accurately measured. Immediately after the repeal of the guild laws in Saxony, 986 applications were made at Leipzig for licenses to trade, and a marked increase was observed in the number of persons who established themselves as tailors, shoemakers, and carpenters; but the pressure was transient and soon ceased altogether. In course of time, no doubt, a number of small masters discovered that their independent existence was menaced, but they derived almost instant consolation from the fact that their services were required in larger establishments, where, as foremen, they could earn more than they had ever earned before as guildsmen. Technical skill was not diminished; labour did not fetch a lower price. The momentous and true results were these. The relations between employer and employed were altered; the old limits in which trades had been confined were obliterated, and broad foundations were laid for a future state of well-being; but the prophetic visions of instant ruin on the one hand, and of immediate prosperity on the other, faded away before the general conviction that time was a material, and till now forgotten, element in the calculations that had been made.

It will probably not be thought necessary to sum up the reasons which lead to the belief that the wounds inflicted by the abolition of guilds will in many cases be healed, and in many others counterbalanced by extraordinary benefits. The benefits can only be reaped to their full extent progressively, and in a long series of years, and the distance which separates us from the point of departure in 1861 is as yet too slight to warrant us in coming to any conclusions. But the fact that the change is taking place is undeniable, though it is working with the slowness which characterizes the first

phases of all human developments. Modern improvements in locomotion and traffic are in Germany to a great extent incomplete. The concentration of population in large centres, though it is beginning to be felt, is still but slightly apparent. Domestic labour has been partially absorbed, and continues to be absorbed, by factories, but it still has vital elements, because factories create new wants, which domestic labour satisfies. Small factories have already attracted many of the forces which dwelt in cottages; the power which larger centres of manufacture wields only tends to englobe, but does not yet immediately endanger the existence of smaller factories. The local system of the guilds has been exchanged for the broader one created by the opening of the German and European labour market; but old habits still cling to the working classes, and innovations make their way with slow and measured step.

Passing from a general to a closer view of things in Saxony, we can observe how and to what extent the modern system assimilates and makes reproductive the earlier unit of industry. Professional spinners, for instance, have ceased to exist since spinneries were founded. The power-loom in large establishments has nearly destroyed and may soon obliterate the cottage hand-loom weaver.

Again, intercommunication by rail and road, interchange of thought by post and telegraph—the world's interchange—creates new wants which the small artizan and mechanic can still satisfy.

Whilst, as we just saw, some of the old guild-masters enter workshops as foremen and take wages, combined with shares of profits, others turn to patching and mending, and do a better business in that way than they did before. Others, again, instead of merely working to order, do so for stock, or they make up articles of which they buy the half-manufactured parts; they are not restricted as to the class of helps which they may employ, and they pay wages to men bred in diverse trades. Certain branches have become sub-divided; for instance, the tinmen into makers of lamps, lanterns, and japanned goods; the carpenters and joiners into building carpenters, cabinet-makers, makers of flooring, of window-sashes, and the like. Some trades have ceased

to exist as exercised by individuals, such as hat, needle, button, umbrella, and stick-making, soap-boiling, and the trade of the tallow-chandler; but the fabrication of pins, hair-pins, hooks-and-eyes, combs, and the like, is still carried on in homes. The sewing-machine has created a new series of house occupations, and basket-making is more than it ever was the life of single families. On new ground altogether, and so a clear gain since the repeal of the guild laws, is the creation of manufactories for those innumerable parts which go to form complex articles—parts which, being produced on the same model in vast quantities, facilitate production. Such manufactories as these are increasing, and tend still more to increase. Other illustrations of the same kind might be added. The trade of the mason remains what it was, being less affected than any others by the tendency of the time, stone-cutting, sawing, and polishing being alone concentrated in the hands of large masters taking men at weekly wages. Carpenters and joiners begin to find that they get higher pay from building firms than they can earn on their own account; but the better wage of the building firm is compensated by a reduction of that of the daily labourer in the carpenter's trade. The millers and bakers are but slightly affected in position or pay by the large steam-mills or steam-bakeries which here and there exist, because small mills and bakers' businesses are still the rule, and can always count on local custom. The small tanners and the large ones exist side by side. The shoemakers and tailors are not so well situated. During the course of the present century the number of shoemakers in Germany has doubled, which is more than the population has done by 10 per cent. Shoe-factories were promoted by the American inventions of pegged soles and sewing-machines; but the more comprehensive engines, of which so many were seen at the Paris Exhibition of 1867, have not been introduced into this country, and the trade is greatly overstocked. Free industry since 1861 has given a new and better position to the wholesale shops, and the masters of these shops, by the luxury of their show of wares, kill the small masters, who are obliged to compete with the journeymen for custom. The rates of wages are low and unremunerative and I hear shoemakers who do a large

business complain that the profits are too small to enable them to live. It is a fact, too, that the shoemakers furnish the largest contingent to the poorhouses. The same story is to be told of the tailors, who are in a state of great depression from low wages and overstock of labour.

Amongst the many symptoms of the reality of the change brought about by liberal legislation in Saxony during the lapse of years, is the alteration in the respective positions of master and journeymen. The history of the guilds affords illustrations enough of the tendency to keep the number of journeymen, as compared with the number of masters, in each trade at a uniform level. The working of the new system acted in two ways: it reduced the masters, and increased the journeymen. In 1849 the average in fifty of the principal trades of large towns in Saxony was 100 masters to 167 journeymen and apprentices. In 1861 these numbers were as 100 to 238, and these proportions give us a clue to the transformation from the old status of the working classes under the guild regulations to that of the working classes when the guilds were on the wane. It shows that a new class of journeymen arose, in the breast of whom there might be a hope, but there was no longer a certainty of future independence in business.

It is possible to construct a Table which shall give the number of persons in several trades resident at Leipzig in the two years 1856 and 1866 respectively. It is, unfortunately, not possible to give a complete list of all the persons employed at Leipzig in the same trades, because there are no statistics for a numerous class of workmen who spend their day in the town, and wander out at night to find a cheaper lodging in the surrounding villages. Such as it is, the Table which follows is valuable for comparison:—

TABLE showing the number of Persons in certain Trades resident at Leipzig in the years 1856 and 1866—the Population of the Town in those years respectively being in round numbers 74,000 and 95,000 :—

Trades.	Year 1866.	Year 1856.
Markt-helfer (porters, packers, &c.) ..	..	1,024
Artizans	..	997
Tailors	409	654
Journeymen ditto	741	1,115
Repairing ditto	62	..
Masons and bricklayers	731	935
Ditto apprentices	69	..
Master printers	30	..
Journeymen printers and apprentices ..	385	..
Compositors	552	.
Readers	25	..
Music printers and engravers	54	..
Carpenters (*see* joiners)	23	.
Journeymen ditto and apprentices ..	35	..
Shoemakers	360	448
Journeymen ditto and apprentices ..	459	1,014
Joiners and cabinetmakers	115	110
Journeymen ditto	561	1,310
Cobblers	123	..
Bookbinders	118	91
Journeymen ditto	445	389
Locksmiths	67	46
Journeymen ditto	442	201
Cigarmakers	362	..
Bakers	56	64
Journeymen ditto	156	..
Engineers, machine fitters, &c.	210	..
Master painters	45	..
Journeymen ditto	115	..
Japanners	50	..
Tanners	171	42
Smiths and journeymen smiths	134	72
Typefounders and journeymen ditto ..	107	..
Stone-cutters and journeymen ditto . ..	97	..
Instrument makers and journeymen ditto .	86	..
Coopers and journeymen ditto	116	100
Glaziers and journeymen ditto	125	124
Upholsterers and journeymen ditto ..	206	129
Lithographers and journeymen ditto ..	71	..
Hatters	54	72
Wheelwrights	43	8
Basketmakers	61	..
Spinners	40	..
Turners	58	59
Gold and silversmiths	33	76
Dyers	31	25
Potters	31	..
Ropemakers	27	81
Tinmen	..	174

Markt-helfer.—In the olden times, when traders resorted to the Leipzig fairs from the most distant parts of Germany, travelling in their own carriages or in the mail, they opened shop with their wares in Leipzig, and engaged for the duration of the fair a certain number of sorters, packers, and porters. The price usually paid to these men, who were called Markt- or Mess-helfers, was about 3*l.* for each fair. They were, mostly, inhabitants of the villages nearest to Leipzig, and usually returned to agricultural avocation after their turn of duty was over. Since improved locomotion, and the foundation of numerous trading-houses at Leipzig, the Markt-helfer has ceased to be casually employed. He lives in Leipzig, and acts regularly as a porter packer, and Jack-of-all jobs. He is usually a man of robust build, knows something of carpentering and coopering, can frequently read, write, and keep accounts, and sometimes rises to the important duties of taking moneys and bills to bank. The Markt-helfer in a small house rarely gets less than 12 thalers; in the largest houses he receives from 20 thalers to 25 thalers a-month, and is often gladdened by receipt of a bonus at the end of a good year of trade.

Tailors.—There is a heavy competition in Leipzig between the country and city tailor: the former being chiefly employed by magazines and slop-shops, the latter by tailors who work to order. The difference is great between magazine wages and master tailors' wages. For magazines and slop-shops the following are the average rates of payment:—

For the make—

	s.	*d.*		*s.*	*d.*
Of a waistcoat..	1	3	to	1	6
„ trousers	1	6		1	9
„ coat	6	0		6	9

Tailors to order pay more, as the following rates for ten years will show:—

The wages in 1859 were, for the make—

	s.	*d.*
Of a waistcoat	1	10
„ trousers	2	3
„ coat	7	6
„ frock-coat..	8	0

The wages in 1864 were, for the make—

	s.	d.
Of a waistcoat	2	0
„ trousers	2	6
„ coat	9	0
„ frock-coat..	10	6

The wages in 1870 were, for the make—

	s.	d.
Of a waistcoat	2	6
„ trousers	2	9
„ coat	11	0
„ frock-coat..	12	6

The rates above given are those which a tailor of average skill is enabled to earn; and the weekly wages at the quotations of 1870 are calculated for a waistcoat and trousers hand, at 15*s.*; for a coat hand, at 18*s.* to 21*s.* Nor is it certain that the magazine tailors earn less per week because they work more superficially, and with less claims on their time for accuracy, solidity, and fit. The hours of labour vary considerably, but are longest in spring, when tailors' work is most in demand.

The condition of the journeyman tailor is much the same as that of men in other trades. If he has a family he lives in a lodging consisting of two rooms, at a rental seldom under 7*l.* 10*s.* a-year. He thus has his breakfast and supper at home, his dinner and luncheon in the workshop, or in a tavern. The unmarried tailor sleeps in a dormitory, at rates varying from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* a-week. I shall have occasion to throw together some remarks upon the questions of lodging and diet in a further section of this Report.

Masons and Bricklayers.—This trade is remarkable for having fewer masters in proportion to the journeymen, than any other. Under the old guild constitution it flourished greatly. Since the period of repeal, it has not ceased to prosper. There are at least 2,000 persons employed as masons and bricklayers at Leipzig, more than one-half of the men living in villages at considerable distances. The winters being usually severe, we may take it as constant that the majority of hands remains unemployed during twelve or sixteen weeks of the year. For this reason the number of men employed fluctuates according to periodical migrations. Many are strangers from the Voigtland, or hill country, who come in spring, and go at the close of autumn. If the villages in which

they live are too far for a daily walk, they visit their homes on Saturdays, and sleep for the rest of the week in so-called "Schlaf-stellen" (sleeping-places) in town. Three years is the time allotted to apprenticeship, at the end of which the following scales of pay are usual:—

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Journeyman foreman, for a day of 12 hours.	3	0	to	3	0
Journeyman (best skilled) „ ..	2	7¼		2	9
Ditto (less skilled) „ ..	2	0		2	3½

Extra hours are paid at the rate of 3½*d.* per hour. By the side of the masons and bricklayers, and in the same works, are usually found the labourer, with his pick and shovel—the bricklayer's help—and the mortar-maker. The pay of these is as follows:—

	s.	d.
Labourer, in summer, per day of 12 hours	1	11
Ditto, in autumn, 9 hours	1	9¾
First help, per day of 12 hours	1	10¾
Second help, „	1	6
Mortar maker „	2	1

Work begins at 6 in the morning in summer; at 8 there is half-an-hour for breakfast; at noon, an hour for dinner; at 4, half-an-hour for a small meal; supper is taken after work.

The usual food is this:—At 8 A.M., rye-bread and butter, lard, or cheese, and corn, spirits for about a ½*d*; at noon, rye-bread and coffee, occasionally a pint of beer (price 1½*d.*); supper, potato, or other soup; once or twice a-week, from ½ to 1 lb. of meat.

Out of his weekly wages the mason pays, as apprentice, 1*s.* 6*d.*; as journeyman, 3*s.* per annum for the so-called personal "Steuer" (tax on persons). He has other obligatory charges, as follows:—

	d.
Sick fund, per month	8½
School money for each child, per month ..	6

The contributions to the sick fund entitle the mason to receive, in periods of sickness, for the first year, 6 . a-week; for the second year, 3*s.* a-week; for the third year, 2*s.* a-week. The Sunday schools for masons and smiths at Leipzig give instruction gratis. The sleeping-berth of a journeyman mason is usually hired in the upper stories of town houses, at the rate of 1*s.* per week,

for which sum the lodging-house keeper gives in addition a can of coffee for early breakfast. There are usually from two to six beds in each room. Men with families pay for lodgings—usually a room and bed-room (Kammer)—in the villages about Leipzig, from 4*l.* 10*s.* to 5*l.* 5*s.* per annum, at the rate of 1*s.* 2*d.* to 2*s.* a-week; but to this lodging a small potato garden is usually attached.

The dress of the mason is linen, corduroy, or moleskin, a woollen jacket, and comforter, and a stout pair of boots. The latter he exchanges when at work for wooden shoes. In his walk to or from town he wears his boots in the streets. In the open country he often walks barefoot, to spare leather. In the winter months, when work is not to be had, the mason seeks odd jobs as a wood-cutter or field-labourer. His wife takes in sewing or washing, and otherwise adds to the sum of the weekly wages.

Printers and Compositors.—There are in Leipzig about 1,100 journeymen printers and compositors, all of whom belong to the Printers' Union. According to a new tariff which come into force on the 1st of July, 1870, the following rules of payment are in force:—Composition is to be counted according to the number of *n's* in the type with which a work is set, except in cases where the *u* is broader than the *n*, in which case the account is taken in *u*. An apostrophe counts as an *n*. Each lead or cross line counts as an *n*, except where the type is extremely small (so-called 8th petit). The charges of a compositor for setting German type are in the main as follows:—

	Sg.	*d.*	
For cicero, corpus, bourgeois, and petit, per 1,000 *n*	3 =	$3\frac{3}{5}$	circa.
Colonel and nonpareil .. .. „	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	„
Pearl .. .. „	$4\frac{1}{5}$	5	„

The charges for English and other Latin types is as follows:—

	Sg.	*d.*	
From MS., per 1,000 *n's* ..	$3\frac{3}{10}$ =	$4\frac{1}{4}$	circa.
From print „ ..	$3\frac{2}{10}$	4	„

The charge for German type in daily journals is equal to that for setting English print. Mathematical and table-setting is charged double. Compositors are bound to make all corrections due to their own mistakes;

all other corrections are reckoned by hours, and fractions of hours, at a rate of $3\frac{3}{5}d.$ per hour. Extra time beyond ten hours is paid $1\frac{1}{5}d.$ per hour over and above the ordinary charges. At these rates, the earnings of a compositor vary from 12*s.* (least skilled), to 18*s.* (middling skilled), and 1*l.* 4*s.* (quite skilled). Apprentices are taken for four years, and receive for the first year 3*s.* food-money, with an increase of 1*s.* a-week for every successive year. After the expiry of the second year, apprentices receive one-half of the rate of wages of a full compositor, according to the number of *n's* he sets; and some clever hands thus earn from 6*s.* to 9*s.* a-week. Since the strike of 1865, women have been frequently employed as compositors: they also earn good wages.

Printers' wages are paid at the following rates per week:—

	s.	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Daily labourers, counting paper	7	6 to	0	12	0
Female ditto	4	6	0	6	0
Paper wetting (men)	7	6	0	12	0
Ditto (invalid printers)	6	0	0	7	6
Ditto (women)	7	6	0	12	0
Satin pressers (men), at $3\frac{3}{5}d.$ to $4\frac{3}{4}d.$ per ream	18	0	1	3	9
Machine masters	15	0	1	10	0
Flywheel man at the hand-press	9	0	0	11	0
Layers (women and boys)	6	0	0	7	6
Catchers (women)	4	0	0	4	6
Form carriers and washers	12	0	0	15	0
Men in the drying and smoothing department	12	0	0	15	0
Accidence printers at hand-press ..	15	0	1	1	0

Overtime is paid to machine masters at the rate of $1\frac{1}{5}d.$ per hour over and above the ordinary wages; to fly-wheel men, at half the above rate. Apprentices in the printing department are paid like apprentice compositors.

Most of the large printing establishments have their own type-foundries, with hand and machine casting. The wages are these:—For every 1,000 types by hand, $7\frac{1}{5}d$; for every 1,000 by machine, $3\frac{3}{5}d.$ The weekly wages vary from 15*s.* to 1*l.* 1*s.* and 1*l.* 7*s.*, and some capital hands earn 1*l.* 16*s.* In this, as in other trades, the contribution to a sick fund is compulsory; but the statutes of the Printers' Improvement Society require contribution to invalid, travelling, and widows' funds; and the bye-laws of the Printers' Union require likewise a weekly payment of $\frac{1}{2}d.$ for the improvement of the

condition of the men as a class, and their support in the event of a strike.

As a rule, the printers and compositors live better than other working men. They usually eat meat once a-day; but the bachelors live like other journeymen in dormitories; and the rents which the married ones pay are but slightly higher than those common in the usual run of trades.

Carpenters and Joiners.—The year 1866 was remarkable for a strike, in which the carpenters and masons joined for the purpose of obtaining a rise of wages. Their pay at that time was calculated, on an average, at the rate of $2\frac{2}{5}d.$; and their claim was for $3d.$ per hour. The strike lasted a considerable time, and ended to the advantage of the masters. The present wages of carpenters, joiners, and smiths, in the large factory of Voigt and Wenck (with 12 masters, 180 to 280 journeymen, and 70 daily labourers, in winter, or 12 masters, and 270 to 370 journeymen, and 80 daily labourers, in summer), is $2s.$ $6d.$ to $3s.$ per day of ten working hours at piece-work; the pay of the masters (as foremen), averaging from 350 to 600 thalers, or $52l.$ $10s.$ to $90l.$ per annum, to which is added a past profit, calculated in 1869 at $16\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the year's salary.

Most of the journeymen with families live in the villages round Leipzig, on account of the comparative cheapness of rent. Those who live in the town balance the extra expense for rent by taking unmarried journeymen as lodgers, at the rates already stated. In all cases the living is frugal. The chief articles of food being bread and butter, with occasional addition, at the evening meal, of sausage, cheese, or meat. As in the case of the masons, a small quantity of brandy is taken at breakfast, and beer or brandy at 4 o'clock. The married men usually eat warm supper.

The rates of wages for carpenters and joiners not in factories is under $2s.$ $6d.$ a-day, and less on an average than that of the masons. In this, as in other trades, the personal State tax of journeymen is $1s.$ $6d.$ per annum.

Shoemakers.—The rates of wages in this trade have increased about 10 per cent. in the last four years, and the rise seems accurately to cover the increase in the price of rent and provisions. The wages of piece-work for wholesale shops are—

	s.	d.	
Wellingtons, pegged	3	0	per pair.
Ankle boots, ditto	2	0	„

The wages for boots and shoes made in the shops of large shoemakers to order are as follows:—

	s.	d.
Wellingtons, single sole, pegged	3	9
Ditto, double sole or sown	4	3

At these rates the lowest earnings per week are 12*s.*, the highest about 15*s.* The wages of a journeyman cutter are 13*s.* 6*d.* a-week; of a female stitcher, from 6*s.* to 9*s.* The diet and lodging in this trade are exactly similar to those of the tailors.

Bookbinders.—Under the guild laws every journeyman bookbinder was forced to "wander" for three years or give up the chance of taking the freedom of his guild. The privileges of the trade at Leipzig were locally important in so far that the son of a citizen and master paid but 3*l.* 15*s.* to become a citizen in his turn; whereas a Saxon was charged 13*l.* 10*s.*, and a "stranger" 37*l.* 10*s.* The "masterpiece" required of each journeyman aspiring to mastery was costly, and not unfrequently produced at an expense of 20*l.* to 30*l.* The number of apprentices was limited to two for each master. The journeyman's pay, without food and lodging, was 6*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* a-week, or from 2*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* a-week with food and lodging, neither of which were of the best or healthiest. Till 1861 the number of masters varied from 80 to 90. Their workshops were dark and dirty, the sleeping-places small, confined, and unhealthy. The day was counted in summer as 13 hours; in winter as 14 and 15 hours; and it was not uncommon for one in ten journeymen to be consumptive. The trade underwent the following changes when the guild laws were abolished in 1861:—

Few of the old guild hands took advantage of their new freedom to found houses of their own, machinery having been rapidly introduced, and the costs of establishments being calculated at little short of 225*l.* to 300*l.* The large bookselling and printing-houses set up shops for their own binding, and employed foremen who were to be had at a lower salary and quite as good as the old masters. The old corporation still holds together as a governing body for the bookbinders' sick and widow fund, and death tontine; but the number of old guild

masters now hardly exceeds 30, whilst that of independent bookbinders employing journeymen is about 140. Journeymen bookbinders now receive wages and find themselves. They are paid at the rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$ per hour, and working on an average $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours; they earn from 1*s.* $4\frac{1}{2}$*d.* to 3*s.* $3\frac{1}{2}$*d.* per day, or 8*s.* 3*d.* to 13*s.* 9*d.* a-week. The subscription of the journeyman to his sick fund is from $2\frac{1}{4}$*d.* to 3*d.* per week. There are few trades, however, in which the hours of labour are more subject to fluctuation. From the 1st May to the 31st August the bookbinder seldom works more than 6 to 8 hours per diem, whilst in September and December he is often busy for $17\frac{1}{2}$ hours per diem.

Smiths, Locksmiths, and Engineering Mechanics.—It is notorious that smiths and locksmiths in Saxony always formed an exclusive guild in which the number of masters was strictly limited, and that of the journeyman entitled to masterships, was curtailed by minute regulations. It was always of the essence of the smiths' trade that he should have a smithy; and this want contributed greatly to keep down the number of mastersmiths in town and country. In both trades (smiths and locksmiths) there was always an army of journeymen with but the faintest chance of founding an independent business. This state of things was favourable to the growth of engineering establishments and foundries, in which, now that the guilds laws are repealed, a journeyman earns more than a small master working without help for his own account. There are more than 60 works in Leipzig and its neighbourhood in which boilers, castings, and machines of various kinds, chiefly mill, printing, sowing, and agricultural, are made. The smaller masters with eight or ten hands still hold their own, but only on condition of labouring harder and longer than the men they employ. Being unable to compete with the larger works for specially skilled hands (for whom, indeed, they never could find constant employment) they are obliged to content themselves with the commoner sort of mechanics, and to make the more difficult and delicate parts themselves. The net earnings of a master under these circumstances seems rarely to exceed, if, indeed, it does exceed 100*l.* per annum. The same class of master, as foreman in extensive establishments, earns from 1*l.* 5*s.* to 2*l.* 2*s.* per week, and frequently partici-

pates in the net earnings of the firm to the extent of 1 or 2 per cent. Piece-work is the rule only in sowing and agricultural machine works, where payments are made in certain proportions weekly on account till the piece is finished, and the amount of labour expended on it ascertained. The weekly payment does not seem to fall below 12*s.*, and seldom exceeds 18*s.* At daily wages, boiler makers and formers earn very fairly indeed; the less skilled at the rate of 2*s.* per day, the more skilled as high as 3*s.* All the masters agree in saying that the skilled mechanic might in many cases earn more by expending less care and finish on his work than he usually does, but he takes pride in being known for turning out what may be considered finished work. As far as my experience goes finished work in Germany is not as finished as its counterpart in England; and the cause lies in this, that there is no demand for high finish, and more stress is laid upon cheapness. Apprentices are bound for three or four years; they get 3*s.* a-week the first year, with a half-yearly rise of 1*s.* 6*d.* till the wages reach the sum of 6*s.* The personal taxes and contribution to sick funds are the same in this as in other trades.

Cigar Makers.—The cigar maker has much the same habits, as far as dwelling and feeding are concerned, as the men in other trades, but he may be classed into town hands and country hands. The town hands come to their work at 8 A.M., and "knock off" at 6 P.M. They have two hours' rest during the day, and the usual feeding-time. The period of best earning is from 18 or 19 to 30 years of age; and the fact that full wages can be earned so early not unfrequently leads to improvidence. It depends entirely on the skill or activity of each hand whether he earns large or small wages, cigar making being paid as piece-work, but the clumsiest man seldom takes less than 10*s.* 6*d.*, and the best often receives 1*l.* 4*s.* a-week. Subordinate to the cigar maker is the sorter, with weekly wages from 15*s.* to 18*s.*, and the wrapper maker (women and boys), with 5*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.* It is not unusual for the cigar maker to employ his own wrapper maker. The country hand has another scale of wages because his rent is lower (1*l.* 16*s.* to 2*l.* 8*s.* per annum), and he buys potatoes and butter cheaper. The weekly earnings vary for a cigar maker from 4*s.* 6*d.*

to 10*s.* 6*d.*, and the wrapper makers (mostly women) are satisfied with 3*s.* to 4*s.* A strike for higher pay, which lasted for several months in 1869, ended in a reduction of wages, entailing much misery and distress. The trade is one of the few in Saxony which subscribes to a union, the chief object of which is ostensibly to give the journeymen means for travelling, or, as the familiar German terms it, for "wandering." But the habit of wandering is on the decline, and the subscriptions to the union are uncertain and tending to decrease. As in other trades the married cigar makers hires a larger dwelling than he requires for his own use, and lets beds to the unmarried journeymen at the rate of 18*d.* per week, including early coffee. There are frequently as many as four beds for lodgers in one room.

Operative Wool Spinners.—Wool spinning is an old industry in Saxony. As late as the close of last century weavers gave out wool to hired spinners. A small machine with thirty spindles, introduced into the country in 1800, began the revolution which has since been all but completed. The contest now is no longer between cottage and factory spinning, but between large and small spinning factories; and it is a symptom of some portent as regards the end of this contest, that the Saxon spinneries have dwindled to one-third of the number registered in 1840, whilst we count the spindles at one half more.

Spinners of the present day are chiefly operatives, and for the most part women. Worsted yarn was combed and twisted by hand till such time as combing, carding, and spinning machines were introduced. But Saxony seems to have had no machines of the kind previous to the year 1850. The difficulties with which worsted yarn spinning had to contend were numerous, and in part still exist, and there is proof of this in the fact that the largest portion of the Saxon imports of yarn are imports of worsted yarn.

In the Pfaffendorf woollen and worsted spinnery at Leipzig 400 hands are employed. The factory was founded twenty years ago, and is now changing its old machinery for new. The wools in use are Hungarian, German, and Colonial in equal parts, sorted, washed, combed, and spun to order in any number, for which there is a booked demand. Those who know how British

spinneries confine themselves to spinning certain numbers will understand the disadvantages of the method pursued here. Piece-work is the rule, and the rates of wages earned may be taken as follows :—

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Master spinner	12	0	to	18	0
Females	4	0		6	0
Combing-machine hands, women and boys over 14	5	0		6	0
Sorters, male	9	0			
Ditto, female	5	0			
Washers, male	12	0		15	0
Ditto, female	5	0		5	6
Women of all work	5	9		5	6

It is needless to point out that this scale of wages is low, and presupposes excessive frugality in living. The women here chiefly nourish themselves with weak coffee, often made from roasted barley, or grounds bought in hotels and taverns. They mostly live in the villages outside Leipzig.

Tinmen.—In this trade the old system of wages with keep is still preserved coexistent with wages without keep; the former average 4*s.* to 5*s.*, the latter 10*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.* a-week.

The Agricultural Labourer is not worse off than the unskilled labourer in towns. He may be divided into two classes: the labourer with wages who keeps himself, and the labourer with wages who is fed by his employer. The latter class, chiefly in villages inhabited by small peasant proprietors, is smaller numerically than the former. In both classes the feeding is good and plentiful, consisting of rye bread, soups, cheese, lard, butter, and once or twice, if not three times a-week, pork or other meat. The wages of the labourer who keeps himself, vary from 1*s.* 1*d.* to 1*s.* 3½*d.* per diem; that of the fed labourer, from 6*d.* to 7½*d.* a-day. The rents of the agricultural labourer are low, two rooms in a cottage with a small garden costing little more than 30*s.* a-year, and the same without a garden 24*s.*

Wages.—If we take a retrospect, for the purpose of considering more particularly the question of wages, we shall find that the weekly earnings of the Saxon workingman are low, and presuppose a frugal mode of living.

In order to make the matter clearer, let us examine the following general Table of weekly wages, comprising for comparison some rates of wages in England, taken

from the miscellaneous statistics of the United Kingdom (1866) :—

	Currency. Leipzig.								Great Britain. In Sterling.					
	Thalers.				Sterling.									
	T.	sg.	T.	sg.	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Wool sorter	3	0			9	0				1	2	0	to 1	12	0
Ditto, female	1	20			5	0									
Wool washer	4	0	to 5	0	12	0	to 0	15	0	0	16	0	1	1	0
Ditto, female	1	20	1	25	5	0	0	5	6						
Spinners	4	0	7	0	12	0	1	1	0	0	18	0	1	10	0
Combers, female ..	1	20			5	0				0	14	0			
Labourers, ditto ..	1	17½	1	27½	4	9	0	5	6						
Bricklayers	4	0	5	10	12	0	0	16	0						
Ditto assistants ..	3	25			11	6									
Smiths and engineering mechanics	4	0	6	0	12	0	0	18	0	1	0	0	1	12	0
Ditto apprentices ..	1	0	2	0	3	0	0	6	0	0	10	0			
Carpenters and joiners ..	5	0	6	0	15	0	0	18	0						
Bookbinders	2	22½	4	17½	8	3	0	13	9						
Compositors	4	0	8	0	12	0	1	4	0						
Printers	5	0	10	0	15	0	1	10	0						
Ditto females	1	10	2	15	4	0	0	7	6						
Tailors	5	0	8	0	15	0	1	4	0						
Shoemakers	4	0	6	0	12	0	0	18	0						
Ditto females	2	0	3	0	6	0	0	9	0						
Tanners	3	0	6	0	9	0	0	18	0	1	5	0			
Ditto labourers ..	3	0			9	0				0	15	0			
Hatters	2	0	8	0	6	0	1	4	0	1	5	0	1	10	0
Cigarmakers (Leipzig) ..	3	15	8	0	10	0	1	4	0						
Ditto females and boys ..	1	25	3	15	5	6	0	10	6						
Cigarmakers (country) ..	1	20	2	25	5	0	0	8	6						
Ditto females and boys ..	1	0	1	10	3	0	0	4	0						
Tinmen	3	15	4	0	10	6	0	12	0						
Agricultural labourers, with keep	1	0	1	7½	3	0	0	3	9						
Ditto, without keep ..	2	5	2	17½	6	6	0	7	9	0	12	0	0	15	0

Before attempting to deduce the purchase-power of these wages, we must look at the price of provision for the last ten years. We can at the same time compare the quotations for similar articles in England and Wales.

AVERAGE price of Corn and Provisions in Leipzig and in England and Wales for Ten Years, up to 1870.

		Currency. Saxony.						England and Wales, in Sterling.		
		Local.			Sterling.					
		Th.	sg.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Wheat	per imperial quarter	17	22½		2	13	3	2	14	5½
Rye	,, ,,	13	7½		1	19	9	..		
Coffee ..	.. per cwt.	28	10		4	5	0	3	8	0
Sugar ..	.. ,,	18	27½		2	16	9	1	19	9
Beef ..	.. per 8 lbs.	1	4		0	3	5	0	3	5
Mutton ..	.. ,,	1	4		0	3	5	0	4	3
Pork ..	.. ,,	1	6		0	3	7	0	4	0
Veal ..	.. ,,	0	27½		0	2	9	..		
Butter ..	.. per lb.	0	9½		0	0	11½	..		

Wheat is dearer in England than in Saxony, but the Saxons seldom or ever eat wheaten bread, and confine themselves principally to rye, which they have come to prefer. Rye is much cheaper food than wheat. But on the other hand, coffee and sugar are dearer wholesale in Saxony than in England, and beef is as dear at Leipzig as in London. Wages in Saxony being much lower than in England, we are led to the conclusion, which we find confirmed by fact and reality, that the Saxon consumes more bread, but less meat, coffee, and sugar than the Englishman; at the same time that, as a married man, he abstains to a large extent from the favourite beverage of both countries, which is beer. In order to complete the picture, it would be desirable to give in parallel columns the prices of house-rent, firing, food and clothing here and in Great Britain. But trustworthy data, in so far as England is concerned, are not at hand, and I can only endeavour to give approximatively what the cost of satisfying these wants is considered to be at Leipzig. I shall add to the list such articles as may complete the necessaries of a Saxon household for a week, and premise only that the calculation is made for a working-man, his wife, and three children.

EXPENSES for a Week of a Working-man with a Wife and three Children.

	Th.	sg.		£	s.	d.
House-rent	0	25	=	0	2	6
Washing	0	5		0	0	6
Firing	0	10		0	1	0
Lighting	0	4½		0	0	5¾
Clothing	0	17½		0	1	9
Schooling for 3 children	0	6		0	0	7½
Early coffee, bread (wheaten) per head and meal, 3 pf.	0	10½		0	1	0½
Breakfast, bread (rye), per head and meal, 1 sgr.	1	5		0	3	6
Dinner, per head and meal, 1 sgr. 2 pf..	1	12		0	4	1½
Vesper (4 o'clock) rye bread	0	17½		0	1	9
Supper, per head and meal, 6 pf. ..	0	21		0	2	1½
Coffee (or really roasted barley or acorns)	0	7½		0	0	9
	6	21½		1	0	1¾

I shall be asked at once how it is possible for a married man, earning very much less than 1*l.* a-week, to live. The reply is quite simple. What the man does

not earn must be made up by his wife, and if she is disabled the household gets into debt. There are not two opinions on the subject in this country. Something may be won, and no doubt is often won, by the married man letting one or two beds to journeymen, at the rate of 10 silbergroschens (1*s.*) a-week for a bed; but this is an uncertain profit. The working-man in an unmarried state is better off, lives more freely, and spends more on his clothes; and even then he can lay by for evil days, or for the time when he resolves to marry. His weekly reckoning would be about this:

	Th.	sg.		*s.*	*d.*
House-rent	0	10	=	1	0
Washing	0	5		0	6
Firing	0	10		1	0
Lighting	0	2		0	2½
Clothing	0	20		2	0
Eating	1	15		4	6
	3	2		9	2½

The reckoning thus stands much as follows:—

PURCHASE-Power of Money.

	Currency.					Purchase Power.
	Local.		British.			
	Th.	sg.	£	*s.*	*d.*	
Labour, *i.e.*, average sum of weekly wages that can be earned by a married man with a family, in town ..	5	0	0	15	0	The wages are 25 per cent. below the actual wants of the family.
Labour of the unmarried man	5	0	0	15	0	The wages are 50 per cent. more than he requires for provisions, clothing, and rent.
Expense of provisions, clothing, and rent, for a married man	6	21	1	0	1¼	
Ditto for a single man ..	3	2	0	9	2½	

The diet of the Saxon is, as I have shown, simple, and not unhealthy. It consists chiefly of rye-bread, butter, bacon fat, pork, sausage, beef, and veal, potatoes, cabbage in great variety, dumplings, and soups. The meat most in use is pork, being as cheap as beef and more substantial.

Englishmen susceptible of an agreeable surprise may enjoy this sensation in Saxon peasant cottages, where the portrait of Francis Drake holds a place of honour as discoverer of the potato. Drake's fame is celebrated in verses more rude than the likeness itself, but the feeling which gushes from the verses seems true and genuine. Englishmen, too, will find food for thought in the fact that the Saxon pays less for veal than for any other meat, whereas working-men in England never think of tasting it, because it is the dearest of all joints. An Englishman would miss here the coal fire, the humble chop and steak which depend upon it, the roast which hangs before it, and the familiar gridiron. Everything in Saxony is baked and stewed; roasts and broils are unknown. Nor do I think that an English stomach would get accustomed at once to rye-bread, which is close and weighty in comparison with our wheaten bread. Beer is smaller than in England, but good and healthy. Of that any amount may be drunk; not so of ardent spirits, in the use of which caution is greatly to be recommended.

With a statistical illustration I may close this section. In 1806 the consumption of meat was 30 lb. per head of the population of Germany, in 1863 the consumption was 35½ lb. In the same interval the price of meat has doubled, from which we may infer that its use by the working classes is not increasing.

Working men are fairly protected from the demoralizing effects of hucksters' shops by the system of co-operative stores, which is very much extended here.

I have spoken of dwellings in preceding paragraphs. The town rents for two rooms and a kitchen vary from 45 to 50 thalers (6*l.* 15*s.* to 7*l.* 10*s.*) per annum. The rooms in which working men live are usually healthy, being chiefly in the upper stories, and seldom under 50 yards in area. In lodging-houses, however, the healthiness of the rooms is in exact proportion to the number of beds, whether two, or four, or more that are introduced into them. The Saxon bed is short and narrow, and its furniture is an Indian grass mattress, a wedge pillow with straw stuffing, and a feather bed. Ventilation and drainage are good, and vaccination is so stringently enforced that small-pox epidemics are unknown.

I have given an opinion as to the character of the work turned out by Saxons. They take pride in it, but they do not, as a rule, turn out as much or as finished work in a given time as the Englishman. I allude here more particularly to work requiring muscular exertion. The proof that skill has an influence in raising wages is apparent in the earlier sections of this Report.

In conclusion, I may remark that the condition of the working classes in the year which is about to expire has been materially affected by the outbreak of the war between Germany and France. Credit was restricted and capital withheld from reproductive enterprise at the same time that the working class was transferred into the army, and withdrawn in numbers from the field of its usual activity. Under these circumstances the loss of hands in manufactures and handicrafts was not felt instantly, because it was balanced by a corresponding amount of depression in the labour market; but in the agricultural districts it was immediately apparent, and much difficulty was found in gathering the harvest, and preparing the ground for winter crops. Bread, and sugar, and coals rose in retail price, whilst in many trades short time was introduced. Throughout the manufacturing districts of Saxony most of the mills went slack. Spinneries at Leipzig struck from Friday evening till Monday morning. In the numerous engineering and machine shops work was restricted to the daylight hours. Families of married reserve-men draughted into the armies were thrown into a state of distress, which was but partially alleviated by a weekly State allowance of 3*s*. As weeks and months elapsed, and the state of war continued, some branches of industry received an artificial impulse. The flannel makers of Hainichen and Reichenbach, in the Voigtland, the cloth and woollen makers of Grossenhain and other places, derive some advantage from an increased demand for their goods. There is now an inquiry for so-called "nouveautés" at Leipzig, which has never been equalled before, and which is solely due to the close of the French market. The blockade of the northern ports curtailed, if not altogether prevented, the import of coals from Great Britain, and labour was, consequently, scarce and well paid in the Saxon and Silesian pits; but the condition of the labour market generally is bad. There is a large

expenditure of standing capital, and consequent decrease in the yield of money; and the pressure, which is sharply felt at this time, may become serious when the war is over.

Pauperism.—It is difficult to ascertain the number of paupers in any part of Saxony, and the only approach to statistics in the matter of pauperism is found in the census returns. These returns give us the number of paupers in Saxon poor-houses on a given day in three different years, as follows:—

Years.	Poor-houses.	Male Paupers.	Female Paupers.	Total Paupers.
December 3, 1858 ..	2,540	10,817	13,019	23,836
„ 1861 ..	..	10,047	12,256	22,303
„ 1864 ..	2,555	7,967	9,617	17,584

The following applies to Leipzig alone:—

Years.	Poor-houses.	Male Paupers.	Female Paupers.	Total Paupers.
1855	48	520	566	1,086
1858	48	433	533	966
1861	..	431	538	969
1864	47	380	465	845

It has been calculated for 1861 and 1864 that out of 100 of each class of workmen in towns with which this Report deals, the following were paupers:—

	1861.	1864.
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Master mechanics	15·88	14·43
Ditto journeymen	19·03	12·96
Sedentary workmen	16·81	21·95
Factory operatives	2·57	2·25
Daily labourers	32·12	31·58

The chief causes of pauperism are ascertained to be idleness, evil habits, and drunkenness.

(Signed) J. A. CROWE.

Leipzig, November 29, 1870.

SPAIN.

Mr. Layard to Earl Granville.—(Received December 22.)

My Lord, *Madrid, December 15, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to inclose herewith a Report on the condition of the working classes in Spain, which I have received from Mr. Ffrench, First Secretary to this Legation, for transmission to your Lordship.

I have, &c.

(Signed) A. H. LAYARD.

Inclosure.

Further Report by Mr. Ffrench on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Spain.

WITH reference to Lord Clarendon's Circular despatch of 7th June, 1870 (of which I was only able to take cognizance on returning to my post last month), I have the honour to state that I have done my utmost to obtain the desired information, but without any satisfactory result. I applied to two ex-Ministers, both of them landed proprietors, who, after a careful perusal of the questions contained in the Circular, informed me that, as none of the necessary conditions existed in Spain, it was impossible to furnish the answers in any but contradictory terms.

In the first place, the purchase-power of money, as explained in this Circular, cannot be determined in a country where the price of provisions varies, not only in every province and every town, but also in every village, where there is no such thing as marketable value, as we understand it. The value of everything in Spain is what you can get for it; consequently any purchase, from the most expensive articles of luxury down to the poorest vegetable, entails a system of haggling and bargaining. This being taken for granted, I should say that the food eaten by the labouring classes in Spain was far cheaper than that to which English working

men are accustomed, as it is inferior in quality—meat being everywhere a matter of luxury.

For this reason it is impossible to give any instructions that can be available to British mechanics desirous of emigrating. If they are to live among Spaniards they must eat and drink what they happen to find, and wear whatever clothes they may happen to possess. This country can provide cloth, woollen, and linen goods, and is blessed with every variety of climate, from the cold of Siberia to African heat. All lodging would be of the simplest description, four walls and plenty of ventilation, owing to the absence of glass windows. Drainage and other details belonging to advanced civilization are here unknown, and all lands in the vicinity of a river are hotbeds of fever during the summer and autumn.

In my former Reports I have amply detailed both the wages obtained by labourers in different provinces and the nature and quality of their food.

With regard to the other questions, I may state from the best authority as well as personal experience, that the quality of work executed by Spanish workmen is generally bad. That if they are sometimes competent in their departments they are always intolerably lazy, and pass the most of their time in smoking and talking —that seldom if ever do they take any pride in their work, but display their ingenuity in cheating their employers—that, with the exception of the more artistic class of workmen, such as are employed in wood-carving, none take an interest in their work, or can be depended on—that they would never make any stand against bad work, though they might rise (in the manufacturing districts) against bad wages; finally, I have been unable to learn that any case exists in which the skill and trustworthiness of the workmen has had any effect upon the rate of wages.

Should the details which have been furnished to Her Majesty's Government respecting the manufacturing districts in Catalonia be deemed insufficient, I can at any time, if desirable, proceed thither and collect information on the spot.

I have, &c.

(Signed) PERCY FFRENCH.

Madrid, December 14, 1870.

ALICANTE.

Consul Barrie to Earl Granville.—(Received October 29.)

My Lord, *Alicante, October 24, 1870.*

In obedience to the Circular of your Lordship's predecessor of 7th June last, to report on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries, I beg to present the following with regard to this Consular district.

The population of the province of Alicante amounts to 392,000 inhabitants, who chiefly dedicate themselves to agriculture, and the production of grain, wine, oil, raisins, and almonds. The daily hire of field labourers is so variable that it is almost impossible to calculate an average. When hands are plenty they work for 8*d.* a day, but in the busy seasons they demand as high wages as 2*s.* and wine.

The town of Alcoy, about eight leagues in the interior, containing some 28,000 inhabitants is, however, an exception, almost all of them being engaged in different manufactories, for which some abundant springs of pure water afford facility. There are 50 manufactories of woollen cloth, which produce some 35,000 pieces of 55 metres each. The number of operatives employed is 2,430 men, 2,150 women, 1,460 children from 12 to 18 years of age, and 800 under 12 years. The hours of work are generally 12, though in several mills I found they were only 10. The daily pay of the foremen is 15 reals (3*s.* 2*d.*), spinners and weavers 11 reals (2*s.* 3*d.*), and the remainder from 7 reals (1*s.* 6*d.*) down to 2 reals (5*d.*) for the children under 12. In several of the mills many of the nappers, fullers, weavers, and spinners work from 15 to 18 hours a day. In connection with the cloth manufacturies there are 8 establishments for dyeing, which employ 100 men, and 12 fulling mills, occupying 50 hands.

There are also in Alcoy 11 flour mills, and 115 establishments for iron and brass founders, machine makers, carpenters, locksmiths, &c., &c. Alcoy is also famous for the manufactory of paper for making cigarettes. In the town there are 32 manufactories, and 17 in four adjacent villages, which are computed to produce 558,000 reams annually, employing 1,591 men, 2,081

women, and 646 children. The hours of work are 10 daily. Foremen are paid 16 reals (3*s.* 4*d.*), and the others from 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*) down to 2 reals (5*d.*) Connected with these there are 70 workshops for cutting and binding the librettos, which employ 140 men and 350 women.

With regard to the position of the industrial classes in Alcoy, I may observe that the maintenance and clothing of the operative may be calculated at 4 reals (10*d.*) per diem, and 30 reals (6*s.* 3*d.*) a month for the rent of the house for his family. These houses are in general small, and do not possess the best hygienic conditions. The food of this class consists principally of bread, pulse, greens, salt fish, fruit, and wine, and they generally enjoy good health, better indeed than in some countries where the food is superior. The dress is composed in summer of cotton and linen, and in winter of woollen stuffs made in the country.

I have, &c.

(Signed) BENJ. BARRIE.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
	Reals.	£ s.	
Labour at average of 9 reals, deducting Sundays and holidays	2,727	28 4	Provisions sufficient for a moderate diet, and equally moderate lodging, which last may be computed at 3*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.* a-year
Provisions during a-year ..	1,825	19 0	for a family, leaving 5*l.* 7*s.* 7*d.* for clothing, &c.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Stew of salt fish, or oil and rice, potatoes, and beans, and very seldom butcher's meat.

Clothing.—Cotton or linen dress in summer, and woollen stuffs in winter.

Lodging.—Reduced apartments, not over well ventilated.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—The cloth and cigarette paper of Alcoy are in good demand all over the country, and large quantities are exported to South America.

BALEARIC ISLANDS.

Consul Bidwell to Earl Granville.—(Received December 16.)

My Lord, *Palma, November 17, 1870.*

In accordance with the instructions contained in Mr. Otway's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, I have the honour to inclose herewith a Report on the condition of the industrial classes in the Balearic Islands.

I have detained this Report until the present time in the hope of being able to collect more complete information and statistics on the subject, but the panic caused by the late prevalence of yellow fever in Palma has prevented my doing so.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CHARLES BIDWELL.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Bidwell on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Balearic Islands.

The Balearic Islands having for many years enjoyed but little inter-communication with other ports and places in Europe, the requirements of the inhabitants have hitherto been exceedingly limited, and have been easily satisfied by the imperfect productions of the native industry, which, although of inferior kind and quality are, nevertheless, considerably varied in extent, comprising, for instance, ship-building, iron-work, carpentry, ropes, sails, barrels, and other requisites for fitting out ships; carpets, woollen and cotton cloths, liquors, soap, oil, and wine, earthenware, glass-bottles, &c.

Now that more frequent communications are established with the Peninsula, the manufactories and markets of Barcelona supply, for the most part, such articles of superior workmanship and quality as the local artizans are unable to produce.

Among the industrial classes of the islands that of

shoemakers is by far the most numerous. The workmen in this branch of industry have attained a very creditable skill and ability; and an extensive Colonial export trade is annually carried on in it, which affords employment to a large number of persons in both Majorca and Minorca. But, with the exception of shoemaking, there is hardly any native industry the produce of which would bear comparison with that of other places and countries, and especially with that of the United Kingdom. Hardly any of the workmen have ever left the islands, or learned their trade in other places than the native workshops; nor have the demands of even the wealthier classes of the inhabitants hitherto offered a market for superior workmanship; and up to the present time there appears to be no opening for improved labour of any kind from without.

The proportion which the industrial classes bear to the agricultural labourers is exceedingly small; and, with the exception of the shoemakers, the number of the one would be only a very small per-centage of the other.

The engagement of the artizans with their employers is voluntary on both sides; and its duration depends upon the amount of work required on the one hand, and on the skill and good faith of the workman on the other.

As a rule, the workmen, considering their opportunities of attaining knowledge, are fairly competent in the branch of labour to which they dedicate themselves; the shoemakers particularly so; and they take a certain degree of pride in their work and reputation, but hardly to the extent of making a stand against doing bad work. The capacity and good faith of the workman has, doubtless, however, a considerable influence in regard to the amount of wages which he receives, and the facility with which he finds employment.

There are no cotton or other factories in the islands on a sufficiently large scale to work foreign labour. The largest is the cotton factory at Port Mahon, which employs about 350 persons, chiefly women, and all natives. The system of remuneration adopted there is payment by piece-work.

In all possible trades, such as tailoring, sail-making, spinning, &c., women are employed, and hence the scale of wages is very low.

The hours which constitute the workman's day have not, up to the present time, been fixed in Palma, though it is now in contemplation to come to an arrangement on the subject between the employer and the employed. The practice is for the workman to commence work at from 5 to 6 A.M. in summer, and from 6·30 to 7 A.M. in winter, and to leave off at sunset, taking an hour for breakfast, and two hours for dinner.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.				Purchase Power.
	Local.		British.		
Labour, viz.:	Reals vellon.		*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	
Shoemakers, piece-work ..per day	12 to 16		2 6 to	3 4	About equal to that in England for the actual necessaries of life in both places.
Blacksmiths. „	6	10	1 3	2 1	
Carpenters.. „	8	10	1 8	2 1	
Tanners .. „	6	8	1 3	1 8	
Potters .. „	6	9	1 3	1 10	
Masons .. „	6	8	1 3	1 8	
Ropemakers „	6	10	1 3	2 1	
Weavers, piece-work.					
Tailors, women, per day	3	4	0 8	0 10	
Spinners, do. „	3	4	0 8	0 10	
Provisions— Prices in England for actual necessaries.					

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The diet of the native artizan in the Balearic Islands is frugal and simple, consisting chiefly of bread, vegetables, fruit, and fish, with butcher's meat in small quantity, and a little wine of the country. Beer is not to be procured, and spirits are consumed to a small extent by the industrial classes. Stimulants are believed to be rather noxious than beneficial, and are not much indulged in.

Clothing.—Similar clothing to that worn in England is worn in the Balearic Islands. The winter, however, is of short duration, and light or linen clothing can be worn for a great part of the year.

Lodgings.—The houses and lodgings usually occupied by the industrial classes are humble dwellings, having but little furniture, which is of the simplest kind. The artizans usually live in the city, near to their work, and readily find lodgings in healthy parts of the town, when the town is healthy. But Palma has, on three occasions, been visited by epidemics of cholera morbus and yellow fever, which have caused a total stagnation of trade, throwing workmen of all classes out of employment.

Of the several classes of artizans the shoemakers enjoy a position which would compare favourably with that of any others.

III.—*Brief Summary of Remarks.*

An English artizan would probably experience great difficulty in obtaining employment, owing to the limited demand for skilled labour; nor would his earnings, if he found employment, enable him to live with the domestic comforts enjoyed by his class at home.

The native workman can only economize by living upon the produce of the islands most carefully—almost penuriously—and as few English artizans would consent to live.

There are many difficulties besides that of language which a foreign workman would have to encounter; and the simple necessaries of life would be more expensive to him than to the native.

Palma, December 2, 1870.

MANILA.

Consul Ricketts to Earl Granville.—(*Received December* 19.)

My Lord, *Manila, October* 14, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of a Circular from Her Majesty's Foreign Office of the 7th June last, calling for information as regard the purchase-power of money, as regards matters connected with the preservation of health, and the quality of work executed in the several departments of labour.

The rate of wages in this Colony is as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Engineer of steamers between Manila and the provinces, per month	30	0	0
Native painters, per month	4	0	0
Ditto, masons, ditto	4	0	0
Ditto, carpenters, ditto	4	0	0
Ditto, labourers	1	16	0
Ditto, ditto	1	7	0

The price of provisions is—

Bread (not sold by weight) per roll	0	0	1
Rice, 136 lbs.	0	9	0
Beef (not sold by weight, but by the piece), say—			
7 lbs.	0	4	6
4 lbs	0	2	0
1 fowl	0	1	4
1 ditto, small	0	0	7
(Three fowls equal to one English fowl.)			
Fish—varies greatly, but on the whole is cheap.			
Tea, per lb.	0	4	6
Sugar, coarse, ditto	0	0	2½
White sugar, ditto	0	1	0
Rent of one room in town, per month ..	2	10	0
Rent of a small thatched hut, ditto	5	0	0
Firewood, 100 pieces, 1½ foot long by 1 inch ..	0	1	4
Drinking water to be purchased.			

On the whole, living for Europeans is very expensive, and no labouring man could well exist under 10*l.* sterling a-month.

The rate of wages, therefore, above-mentioned, as given to native labourers and mechanics, would not suffice to maintain Europeans; nor, if it did, could

Europeans resist the effects of the climate if called on to perform hard manual labour. The English engineers that have been engaged by the Spanish Government in the arsenal have nearly all succumbed to the effects of the climate. It is also to be observed there is little or no employment for European mechanics or labourers in this Colony.

I have, &c.
(Signed) H. RICKETTS.

PUERTO RICO.

Consul Cowper to Earl Granville.—(Received December 29.)

My Lord, *Puerto Rico, December 1, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship, in accordance with the instructions of the 7th June last, a Report upon the condition of the industrial classes in this Island. For such a subject I have been very concise, and the necessity for being so has obliged me to generalize my observations.

I have thought it not only interesting but necessary to the elucidation of the subject that the laws relating to labour—first, of the freemen, secondly of the slaves, and thirdly, of the recently emancipated, should accompany my Report; and, although they have considerably added to its bulk, I have made the translations without expense to Her Majesty's Government, and have placed them in an Appendix; so that, if your Lordship should think fit, they can be omitted from publication, should you consider the Report itself worthy of that honour.

I have, &c.

(Signed) H. AUGUSTUS COWPER.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Cowper upon the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Island of Puerto Rico.

ALTHOUGH the condition of the industrial classes in the Island of Puerto Rico cannot command the same degree of interest as that of the same classes in countries of greater importance, still, at a time when a great revolution in all the relations of labour is about to be installed by the abolition of slavery, their actual state at the present moment may, at some future period, serve as a point from which to judge of the comparative success

or failure of the system to be inaugurated; besides, there are many circumstances in the position of this Island which are of peculiar interest, as non-existent elsewhere, particularly the unusual proportion of whites to coloured people; and the fact of its production being the largest in the tropical world for its extent, and at the same time the number of slaves employed in it proportionately the smallest.

The laws which regulate labour are comprised in one important decree, admirably adapted to a mixed population such as exists in Puerto Rico; they are the work of General Peynela, and were promulgated by him when Captain-General of the Island in 1849, in his "Bando de Policia y Buen Gobierno." I annex a translation of it, without which this Report would be incomplete; and I here embody some observations upon it, which I transmitted, at his request, to Mr. Cardwell, when Secretary of State for the Colonies in 1866:—

"The Government of the Island of Puerto Rico is similar to that of other Spanish Colonies, and is under a General Officer, called a Captain-General, who is supreme in all matters, whether civil, military, or ecclesiastical; and this autocratic form of government is carried out to its fullest extent. With rare exceptions, all posts are filled by Spaniards, and, with the exception, of course, of the ecclesiastical, all the employés are military.

"This form of government has its advantages in a country of antagonistic races and conditions, and favourably influences the state of society, for it introduces a large and educated class from Spain, who are satisfied with their condition, and are loyal to their flag: these form the aristocracy of the Island; but not only are the officers of the army Spaniards, the soldiers of the whole regular force, amounting to 3,000 or 4,000 men, are also so. The militia and police, about 20,000 strong, are likewise whites, and upon these forces the Government can entirely rely.

"Next in the social scale are the merchants and shop-keepers, composed for the most part of Spaniards, who have become wealthy by their industry; Creole Spaniards, and foreigners, very few in number, however, from the discouragements opposed to them by the Government.

"The free coloured population are prosperous and contented according to their lights; many are shopkeepers, and even landed proprietors in easy circumstances. Labourers, or journeymen, as they are called, are obliged to work without reference to colour, under the law of the "Libreta," and easily earn half-a-dollar a day, which is sufficient to withdraw them from the vices which attach to idleness, and is ample for their very primitive necessities.

"The slaves are probably more independent and less degraded than elsewhere, for, as freemen of all colours work with them, there is no degradation attached to any particular kind of labour, as I have seen so disastrously the case in Brazil. All the manual force of the country is made available, by the law of the Libreta, for every species of work; and thus employers find it desirable to encourage their slaves to emancipate themselves; and so largely have they profited by this that it is estimated that no more than 35,000 slaves remain of the 41,736 returned at the census of 1859.

"There exists no perceptible prejudice against colour amongst these different races and classes, who live in harmony together, and with a very remarkable absence of crime; but they are, as it were, kept in position by a strong Government, who will not permit them to shuffle out of their places into the troubled sea of politics. The exciting speculations upon national rights, races, and nationalities are torpedos which lie dormant in the bosom of such societies as exist in the West Indies, where most an explosion is to be dreaded; and the danger has been greatly heightened by recent events in the United States, San Domingo, and Jamaica; and the peril is best to be averted by the course adopted by this Government of obliging every man to perform his first duty to society by working for his living, and thus becoming an aid, instead of a burden, to it, and at the same time diverting his mind from topics impossible for the majority to understand, and which would consequently be like a lighted torch in his hands.

"The unusual numerical division of races gives the island a character of its own, differing materially from any other tropical country. There were 603,000 inhabitants at the last census, of whom 310,430, or more than one-half, were white, and 292,751 coloured, and of these last,

at the highest estimate, only 41,736 were slaves. This proportion of white to coloured people, and of slaves to the whole population, is not to be met with elsewhere; in Brazil and Cuba the very reverse is the case; and yet in Cuba, with fourteen times the extent of territory, and twice the amount of population, the agricultural productions are but two-thirds greater than here; the obvious question presents itself, How has this result been produced? and I have no hesitation in saying that it is entirely owing to the law of the Libreta. General Don Juan de Peynela distinguished his administration by causing the various laws touching upon police and public order to be codified under the title of "Bando de Policia y Buen Gobierno." In this is a decree entitled, "Instructions to the Local Magistrates for the better regulation of the Labourers in the Island of Puerto Rico," establishing the Libreta system; and whilst it cannot be denied that it is a coercive law, (and what law is not?) it will be observed that it is altogether impartial in its application, it is not directed against any class, race, or colour, but, without distinction, calls upon every man in the position of a labourer to periodically prove that he lived honestly by, instead of dishonestly upon, society; it does not attach a man to the soil, he may go where he pleases, choose his employer and the sort of labour which suits him; being in health, it insists upon his working, and, in return, protects him in all his rights, personal or pecuniary; the law can neither be called slavery in disguise or serfage, for it differs altogether from both in its most essential points, and so highly do I think of its wisdom, that I attribute the following result entirely to it:—

"1. It puts an end to the African Slave Trade with this island.

"2. It is gradually extinguishing slavery here.

"3. It has almost stopped pauperism and vagrancy.

"4. It has rendered the labouring classes prosperous and independent, without making them insolent and unsupportable, like the free coloured people of Hayti, San Domingo, and the British and foreign West Indies.

"5. It has made so much of the manual force of the country available that agriculture and commerce have increased to an unprecedented extent.

"6. And it has so greatly ameliorated the condition of

the labouring classes that population has increased so rapidly as to render immigration unnecessary, indeed, very undesirable."

This law, which, it will be seen, regulates the labour of the free working class, is still in force.

The laws relating to slave labour it will be now unnecessary to recapitulate, as a preliminary Law of Emancipation passed the Cortes on the 23rd June last, to be followed, it is said, by a General Act next Session. The Spanish slave laws were always as humane as the subject would admit of; they protected the slave as much as possible from injustice and cruelty, and afforded *him* every facility for freeing himself; in both these objects, they were, as a general rule, successful.

The new law emancipates retrospectively all children under 2 years of age; and, prospectively, all who may be born from the date of the passing of the Act, and all slaves over 60 years of age; it abolishes the punishment of the lash, prohibits the separation of families, and various less important provisions.

The importance of the Act is, however, very much diminished upon reflection; at first, the appearance of a Spanish Emancipation Act was such an unexpected offering to the cause of humanity and to the feelings of the civilized world that it was received, like the Prodigal Son, with much greater welcome than it deserved. The Spanish Government promises a measure of General Emancipation next Session, and it is to be hoped that it will successfully carry it through, for the law of 23rd June is a delusion: it will be observed that it emancipates the helpless only, those who can neither work for their masters or provide for themselves; and the sections of the Act which recognize this may be truly termed laws for the perpetuation of slavery; thus, all the children are to remain subject to their masters as heretofore until they reach the age of 18 years; consequently, if this Act were final, the proprietors of slaves would retain the gratuitous services of all the young slaves now emancipated and their descendents until they arrive at that age. Then, all the slaves of 60 and upwards now emancipated may remain with their masters, upon the condition of unpaid labour for personal support; and as most slave men and women of 60 are utterly ignorant of the ways of the world, and by no means physically or mentally

qualified to embark in them, it is to be anticipated that most of them will remain; and thus the state of slavery will remain very much the same as if the law of the 23rd June had never been enacted.

As regards the promised Act of General Emancipation, it is difficult to see how the Spanish Government, men with the best intentions, can carry it into effect. There appear to be only three methods of doing so:—

1. General and immediate emancipation, with consequent immediate compensation to proprietors.

2. General and immediate emancipation without compensation.

3. Gradual emancipation.

The Spanish Government could not accomplish the first, having neither money or credit wherewith to compensate the proprietors.

It dares not attempt the second, for the proprietors of slaves are precisely those by whose personal and pecuniary sacrifices Cuba has been preserved to the Spanish Crown.

And were the third course adopted, it would prove distasteful to both proprietors and slaves, and probably lead to an insurrection amongst the latter.

Committees of proprietors, summoned by the Government, have been sitting here and at Havana for some time past, to offer any suggestions upon the question of Emancipation; and that at Havana proposed a plan by which the slaves would become free in about thirty years, during which period the Government was to encourage the importation of negroes from the Coast of Africa. The Committee, which is still sitting here, appears to think that twelve years would be a sufficient delay before final emancipation, provided the law of the Libreta was stringently enforced. Both Committees will demand immediate compensation. It may, therefore, be said, that nothing practical has yet been decided upon; and that although the institution of slavery is condemned to death, the day for its execution is very far from being fixed.

Such are the laws which regulate labour in this island; for although contracts are made betwixt master masons, bricklayers, carpenters, and their men, these contracts are never drawn up with any legal formality, and would doubtless prove worthless in a Court of

Law; but the Libreta and Preliminary Emancipation laws merit special attention, as the bases of future legislation, for the former will doubtless in some form substitute slavery, and might possibly be made the instrument for perpetuating it under another form; and, indeed, of even extending it to the whole, instead of as now, a fraction of the labouring classes; for if the proposals of the proprietors of slaves, that a condition of emancipation must be the accompaniment of a legalized and encouraged importation of Africans were adopted, the negro labourer would first be apprenticed for a number of years, and then, by a stringent application of the Libreta law, be forced to daily labour the rest of his life; and an idea may be formed of the manner in which it is intended to carry it into operation, when I state that efforts are being made to induce the Government to abolish squatting, and oblige every man, woman, and child to live in some village, that it may thus be made easy to enforce his service. The Libreta system has hitherto produced the best effects; but the proposed abolition of slavery offers so great a temptation to abuse it, that I, who have so warmly supported it, feel bound to point out the perils which may attend its retention. The Preliminary Emancipation, although of little inherent value, is interesting as the first step towards the inevitable end—General Emancipation.

I shall now proceed to the material and physical condition of the labouring classes; and it is right at once to observe, that there is nothing in either to induce any British artizan or labourer to come here; before he was permitted to reside he would have to make a declaration that he was a Roman Catholic. Although it may be anticipated that with the recent decree upon the liberty of conscience, this abominable regulation will be abolished, he would have to pass the ordeal of acclimatization, which the agricultural labourer never would pass, for the astounding advertisements which have appeared in the English journals to induce labourers to emigrate to the tropics, must have been actuated by motives scarcely to be qualified, for, after thirty years' experience, I will venture to say, that any Englishman working during the day in the open fields, in these climates, would die in less than three months; and although mechanics, and others confined to indoor work, may live

without any very extraordinary attention to diet or clothing, in perfect health, there would always remain the sacrifices of separation from home and friends, the demoralizing examples which would hourly meet the eyes of his children, the absence of means of education, and, if not a Roman Catholic, of religious exercise and instruction for them, the discomfort and impurity of the dwellings, competition with natives extremely jealous of foreigners, and many other adverse circumstances, which I am about to notice in speaking about the native workman.

Carpenters, masons, coopers, bricklayers, blacksmiths, and other mechanics, can earn, with facility, 6*s*. a-day without food, or 4*s*. with food. I should say that the purchase-power of money for the industrial classes in Great Britain and Puerto Rico, considering the difference in their habits and tastes, to be about equal. Rent here is very high for the wretched accommodation obtained; and clothing is dear; but the food upon which the artizan is content to live, such as yams, plantains, rice, with an occasional piece of dried beef or salt fish, flavoured by the everlasting Catalan oil and garlic, and washed down with a dram of new rum, is very much cheaper than that upon which an English mechanic subsists.

This class of artizan is more abundant in the towns than in the country; and I will first notice the town one. He usually lives in a single room, say 10 feet square, without windows or aperture, except the door leading from the patio or court of some large house, and for which he pays 5 dollars, or 1*l*. a-month; his clothing, in so warm a climate, need not be expensive, nor indeed is it so, on working days; but the Africans have instilled their taste for finery into all the working classes; and upon Sundays and Saints' days he comes out quite resplendent in his black cloth coat, white waistcoat and trousers, red or blue cravat, chimney-pot hat, gilt watch and chain, with real glass precious stones in his bréloques and rings; to obtain these, he passes a great part of his time in gambling; and no Turk or Mormon can exceed him in his devotion to the women, and I may add, music and dancing. He has an utter indifference to social comforts, or to mental improvements, but delights in sensual ease and frivolous pleasures; he is very idle, according

to our ideas, and will not work whilst he has money; he is, consequently, improvident and reckless; and I do not know of a single instance of a mechanic having made a fortune; he is dirty, and enjoys bad smells, but this he imbibes from his masters the Spaniards, who all have hydrophobia, and from the same cause he is ignorant and bigoted. On the other hand, the Puerto Rico mechanic is sober, civil, and remarkably devoid of crime.

The same class in the country usually reside upon the estates; their wages vary in the different Departments; in that of Mayaguez, where labour is abundant, indeed I may say, superabundant, mechanics do not earn more than 4*s*. a-day; whilst in those of Huncacao and Fajardo they obtain 8*s*. The reason why labour is so unequally distributed over the island, is the state of the roads, and the general dislike of the labouring classes to leave their districts.

To exemplify the sanitary condition of the working classes I cannot do better than describe that of the capital. It is a fortress, built upon an island, separated only by a bridge from the mainland; the city, which contains 25,000 inhabitants, is massed within its enceinte, in a space not exceeding half-a-mile square; it is laid out in well-paved streets at right angles; and being upon a hill, about 120 feet above the level of the sea, it is well washed by the heavy tropical rains; but the town is entirely devoid of sewerage.

So dense a population in so small a space is naturally very much crowded. Some of the houses are three stories high, and all are built strongly of brick and mortar. They are all on the same plan—an oblong square, in the centre of which is the patio, or open court. Around these patios are the abodes of the working classes; these are rooms, or, as we should call them, cellars, about 8 or 10 feet square, paved with stone, having one door, and no other opening for free ventilation. In a large house there may be eight or ten of these abodes; they all lead into the patio, in the centre of which is the well, supplied by rain-water from the roof of the house, which is flat for the purpose, and is made use of as a promenade in the evening, thus contaminating the water-supply with rejected cigar ends, the eternal spitting of Spaniards, and the dung of cats,

birds, &c. Near the well in the patio is the cesspool, so near that its contents must inevitably percolate into the drinking water, which may, in some measure, account for the remarkable fact that although I have been here eight years I never heard of one being emptied.

The rooms, as I observed, are devoid of free ventilation, and may be said to lie at the bottom of a deep well, which the patio may be very properly called. I look at this moment into the patio of the house in which I live, but which, I thank heaven, happens to have no tenants. On three sides of it there is a wall 90 feet high, and on the fourth one of 60 feet; and this is the most favourable specimen in Puerto Rico of those damp, sunless places into which the rooms of the working classes open, in some of which reside families of six or eight persons; and although an old, solitary, misanthropic negro, who has freed himself, and retired from the world in disgust, may sometimes be met occupying one alone, this is rare, and five persons to each room may be considered a fair average; and, taking that of rooms in each patio to be six, it may be estimated that thirty people of the working classes live in the yards of every house; there they eat, drink, sleep, wash (rarely), and cook; and the odours arising from these operations—the fumes of garlic and Catalan oil, mixed with that of the indescribable cesspool, which must be known to be appreciated—stink in the nostrils, and, without exaggeration, make an Englishman's life miserable. I watched one old lady, when I lived in a house which had tenants—she combined economy in water with cleanliness of person—every day she came into the patio with a tumbler of water and a piece of stick; with this she cleaned her teeth, discharging the water into her hand, and washing her face with it. Yet, with all this miasmatic dirt, overcrowding, and air-poisoning, do people die here in greater proportions than elsewhere? Quite the contrary; though one of the most stinking, it is one of the most healthy places in the world; although opposing all the hygienic laws, it rides triumphant over them. I have known the time when the cemetery was not opened for eight days; and although Puerto Rico has had its epidemics of cholera, yellow fever, and small-pox, their ravages have not been very dreadful.

The hours of labour for a mechanic are about ten—

that is to say, from sunrise to sunset—6 to 6, with two hours for his meals. The quality of work executed here is strong but rough; the houses, dangerous as they appear, when the frequency of earthquakes is considered, have withstood them all; and the Casa Planca, built upon the edge of a precipitous hill, by Ponce de Leon, about 300 years ago, is still in excellent preservation, and used for the staff of the engineers: it is pointed out as proof of the great strength and durability of native workmanship. I should say that all classes of mechanics are generally competent in their respective trades, and some, doubtless, take a pride in good work; but I seriously doubt if their sense of honour could be depended upon to secure it; indeed, notwithstanding all the boasting about Spanish honour, my experience has convinced me that here, more than elsewhere, men boast of that most of which they possess the least.

But by far the most interesting and important part of this subject is the condition of the agricultural labourer; and the following tabulated statement of the amount of production of the Island is a necessary preliminary to entering upon it.

533	Sugar estates,	producing	100,000 tons of sugar and 60,000 puncheons molasses.
535	Distilleries ..	„	365,000 gallons rum.
53	Coffee plantations	„	207,000 cwt. coffee.
54	Tobacco plantations	„	211,000 cwt. tobacco.
57	Cattle estates ..	possessing	90,000 head of cattle.
			6,500 sheep.
			6,750 goats.
			30,000 horses, &c.
10	Tanneries ..	preparing	784,898 cwt. hides.
	Estancias or small farms ..		20,040 cwt. cotton.
			73,790 cwt. rice.
			56,800 bushels maize.
			360,700 cwt. plantains.
			342,168 cwt. yams, sweet potatoes, &c.

The labour engaged in this production is that of 58,589 persons, men, women, and children: of these, not more than 20,000 are slaves; the females, however, are exclusively slaves, as free women are obliged to attend to their maternal and domestic duties.

The slave men and women and freemen are employed alike in planting, cutting, grinding, and cleaning the cane, and the children in taking care of the cattle upon

a sugar estate. The hours of labour are very severe in crop-time—twenty hours out of twenty-four, but the freemen, if made to work at night, receive half-a-day's additional pay. These labourers are of all colours, in respect of which there is little or no prejudice, nor do the free object to work with slaves, or whites with coloured people; and it is worthy of remark that, in this slave country, the industry almost exclusively assigned to slaves elsewhere is performed, to the extent of two-thirds, by freemen, and one-third only by slaves.

Upon the coffee, cotton, and cattle estates a still greater proportion of freemen are employed than upon the sugar; they constitute, of course, the lowest and most ignorant of the industrial classes; their pay is 2*s*. a day, with food, but no lodging. In many respects the material condition of these freemen is worse than that of the slave; the latter is harder worked and unpaid, but he is provided with house, food, and clothes; he has medical treatment when he is ill, and the Spanish laws afford him a special protection against injustice, which they do not offer to the freeman, probably considering that he needs it less. The houses, clothes, and food of the slave, bad as they are, are all superior to those of the free labourer; and he has opportunities of making money, of which he is sharp enough to avail himself, which frequently enables him to free his family, and afterwards himself.

The houses of slaves upon an estate may be likened to large deal boxes of about 8 feet square, fixed upon a stage raised about 2 feet from the ground; it has a door and sometimes a small window; in it the slave lives with his family, if he has one. Upon some estates the slaves do not live in separate houses but in "quarteles," or barracks. These are only boxes of larger size, into one of which all the men are put at night and all the women in the other, and locked in. In the greater part of the estates no regard is paid to decency, cleanliness, or ventilation in these "quarteles;" filth and stink reign supreme within and without.

The free labourer pitches his habitation anywhere that he can obtain permission to do so; it is usually very inferior to the slaves, being built of poles instead of planks, filled in with cocoa-nut leaves, and being too often located in low unhealthy positions; it is generally

raised higher from the ground than the slave's, but it is so utterly unprotected from the weather, the heavy tropical rains, the violent winds, and the very great vicissitudes of temperature prevalent here, that their hygienic state is most deplorable, and they and their families are a prey to disease; it is pitiable, in taking shelter from a storm, to find the wretched shed, rather worse than the open air, torrents of dirty water coming through the decomposed leaves of the roof, horizontal douches blown through the sides, and some portion, at least, of the miserable family shivering with ague, their heads tightly bound up, and their yellow faces and bloodless lips showing too plainly the sufferings to which they are habituated. They say that they do not build themselves more substantial houses as, upon the smallest provocation, the landlord sends and burns them, driving them from their estates. These people are of all colours and, like the slaves, are totally devoid of education; they frequently live too far from the church to obtain religious instruction, and the worship of a ridiculous little image or picture constitutes their religious exercise, so that all may be said to be darkness to them, both in this world and in the world to come.

There are some labourers who, in appearance, are in better circumstances than their fellow, and they are so, in fact; they are those men who possess some land of their own, but conceal the fact and inscribe themselves as labourers, and obtain a "libreta" to avoid paying the heavy taxes to which all proprietors are subject, and which fall with great severity upon the lavrador, or small farmer.

The foregoing 60,000 people (slaves and journeymen) constitute the agricultural labourers of the island; they enjoy nothing that we should consider comforts, and are deprived of much which we should regard as necessary; they work less than our people (with the exception of the slaves), bnt they earn less, they live in filthy boxes without ventilation, or dirty cages exposed to the inclemency of the weather; they are badly clothed and utterly devoid of the rudiments of education or religious instruction, but they nevertheless appear contented with their filth, ignorance, and idleness, and will probably continue to be so as long as the existing climatic influences are unchanged; if, therefore, they are not to sink still

deeper, and become like the inhabitants of St. Domingo, a dying people, with dying production, commerce, and industry, the law of the libreta will, it is hoped, be retained without being made more stringent; for although a coercive law, if coercion is ever justifiable, it must be when put in practice to preserve to the world's sources of supply so valuable a portion as this island.

I have said nothing upon the subject of the coolies or Chinese, for in this island there are so few that they produce no perceptible effect upon its labour. I have remarked that immigration is discouraged, and this is particularly the case as regards the Chinese, whose religion and habits, or the popular idea of them, causes them to be held in special abhorrence. The few that are here are not favourable specimens of the race, as they are all convicts from Cuba, and are kept at the Presidio as prisoners, and leave daily under guard to labour on the public works; but the Chinese question is one of the deepest interest and importance not only to the West Indies but to the whole of the Americas, and will be to the whole world; this is not the place to speculate upon the effects of an immigration which it will, in all probability, be impossible to stop; but that a people so intellectual, so philosophical, and at the same time so energetic and brave, will make their mark upon the American races, their religion, literature, and institutions, there can be no doubt in my mind; those who are in Cuba are, by a dogged determination and manly resolution, making head against a system and treatment as bad as slavery; and I have no doubt but that my colleague in Cuba will have drawn attention to their pitiable condition.

SUMMARY.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
Labour—	$ c.	*s. d.* *s. d.*	
Skilled .. per day	average 1 50	6 0	About equal.
Unskilled.. „	0 50	2 0	
Provisions	3 to 5 reales	1 6 to 2 6	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Salt fish, dried beef, plantains, rice, Catalan oil, and garlic; water generally, rum exceptionally.

Clothing.—On working days, calico shirt and trousers, straw hat; on Sundays, cloth coat, duck trousers and waistcoat.

Lodging.—Damp, ill-ventilated single rooms, without any conveniences, close to cesspool in town, in the country badly built wooden houses, exposed to weather.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Strong, but rough.

(Signed) H. AUGUSTUS COWPER.

Puerto Rico, December 1, 1870.

APPENDIX No. 1.

Instructions to be observed by the Local Magistrates of the Island of Puerto Rico, for the better Regulation of its Labourers.

(Translation.)

Article 1. ALL persons shall be considered labourers or journeymen who, from lack of capital or trade, are obliged to hire themselves in the service of others, whether they engage themselves in field labour, in the mechanical arts, in trades, or in domestic service for specified wages; in like manner, he who possesses a piece of ground of his own, or who cultivates land hired from another, the produce of which being insufficient for his necessities, is obliged to engage himself for a part of the year.

Art. 2. The local magistrates will keep a register of all labourers, without any exception, according to Form No. 1, and all persons above 16 years of age belonging to this class must be registered in it.

Art. 3. The local Magistrates will give to each labourer a "libreta" with the certificate of his registration, according to Form No. 2; this document to be delivered gratis.

Art. 4. The labourer will take particular care of the "libreta" alluded to in the foregoing article; he who loses it through any accident must at once inform the

Magistrate of his parish, that he may give him another; for if he omits to do so, and is found without one, the loss will be considered malicious and voluntary, and will be punished by eight days' labour on the public works at half wages.

Art. 5. No one is permitted to engage a labourer without first ascertaining if all his accounts have been settled with the last person who employed him, and he who infringes this regulation shall incur a penalty of 6 dollars, besides the obligation of paying all debts due by the labourer to his employer, and he must reimburse himself from the man's work.

Art. 6. In the "libreta" spoken of in Article 3, all persons who engage a labourer must note the day upon which he entered their service, the length of the engagement, the date of its termination, and the conduct of the labourer.

Art. 7. Any person who through false sentiment of compassion fails in the truth, and gives the labourer a good character when he did not deserve it, will pay a fine of 6 dollars for the first offence, double for the second, and for the future all declarations of his will be rejected, and the fact duly noticed in the proper manner.

Art. 8. Any person withholding the wages of a labourer, or breaking the engagement that he has made with him, or refusing to enter in his "libreta" the statements required by Article 6, shall be fined 10 dollars, paying, in addition, to the labourer the wages which he probably lost in making his complaint, and any other expenses which it might have entailed upon him.

Art. 9. The local Magistrates will see that the labourers in the districts are constantly employed. When they find any one is not so, they will summon him and give him employment on the public works, if it cannot be obtained with private persons. With this object the Commissaries of Police will furnish a monthly return to the local Magistrates of all labourers out of work, and if through favour or neglect they fail to do so they shall be fined 4 dollars.

Art. 10. The labourer of good character who cannot find employment with private individuals shall be provided with it upon public works at the ordinary rate of wages paid in the parish.

Art. 11. If no public works are in progress within

the parish whereon to employ these labourers, the local Magistrate shall recommend them to the director of the nearest works, who shall give them occupation upon the above terms; but if they belong to a class who cannot find employment through their bad characters they shall be sent to work upon the public roads, receiving only half pay daily for the space of six months.

Art. 12. No slaves are to be employed on Government works whilst freemen can be obtained.

Art. 13. The year into which this regulation comes into force, proprietors will be prohibited to receive squatters ("vecinos aggregados"). In the meantime, he who admits a labourer upon his estate should give an account to the local Magistrate of the conditions upon which he is admitted, and those which he has promised to fulfil.

Art. 14. Those who cannot give satisfactory guarantees to the local Magistrates cannot receive squatters upon their lands, even during the period that that faculty is allowed; and the Magistrates will keep especial watch over this, and make the Commissaries of Police responsible for any infringement.

Art. 15. Masters of trades and the mechanical arts will give a monthly report to the local Magistrates of their district of the conduct and proficiency of their workmen and apprentices, and in the event of these last being wholly intrusted to them, and living under their personal care, they will be held responsible for their conduct.

Art. 16. In the villages of the island small plots of land will be given gratuitously to the labourers for the construction of their dwellings, in situations which do not interfere with the public convenience; and if there exists no public property some must be purchased for the purpose, retaining the original right to it.

Art. 17. The orphans of labourers, children abandoned by their parents, may be delivered by the local Magistrates to residents of respectability, upon terms favourable to the children.

Art. 18. The owners of cock-pits, billiard rooms, gambling rooms, or any other establishment of this description, shall not, under any pretext whatever, admit labourers on working days, or to their night amusements, nor shall they admit at any time either minors

or slaves without the application of the existing legal penalties.

Art. 19. The owner of any small shop or vendor who permits a labourer to remain in his establishment longer than is necessary for him to make his purchases shall pay a fine of 2 dollars.

Art. 20. The Commissary of any district who permits or tolerates cock-fighting in the streets, roads, or private houses, shall pay a fine of 6 dollars.

Art. 21. It is the duty of the local Magistrates to thoroughly comply with these instructions :—

1. Establish the Register of Labourers in the terms specified, and to deliver the documents mentioned in Articles 3 and 4.

2. To describe the persons subject to registry, and those who may be permitted to receive squatters upon their estates during the year mentioned.

3. To see which would be the best method for organizing the Association of labour, causing the Labourers to divide themselves into parties of equal numbers, and that each should have at its head a capataz or foreman, who by his good conduct and industry has merited the confidence of the Magistrate with whom the proprietor may contract for the work to be engaged upon. They will strictly bear in mind, also, that to successfully carry out the Association, the capataces must be respected by the individuals who compose their respective parties, and bound to materially fulfil his engagements.

4. To watch the conduct of masters, men, and apprentices of trades or mechanical arts, reprimanding them when they deserve it, and if this is insufficient, report the case, with a statement of the facts, that more stringent measures may be adopted.

5. Verify the Register of Labourers at the commencement of each year, to add those who may have become liable to subscription, and to mark off those who may have died, exchanging for new those "libretas" which may have become damaged by use and filing them.

6. State with due accuracy those labourers who by their meritorious conduct deserve to be noted for prizes to be allotted, giving the details for my sanction.

Art. 22. Every year, upon the birthday of our lady the Queen, prizes will be given to those labourers who have most distinguished themselves in each village of the

island for their industry and honourable conduct, upon the following basis :—

1. In each 400 labourers one will receive a prize of 50 dollars, which will be paid from the public funds.

2. The parish that does not contain so many workmen will, nevertheless, give a prize to one who is eligible, of proportionate value.

3. Should the number of those qualified for competition for prizes exceed the number mentioned in the census of the labouring classes, they will draw lots fifteen days beforehand, by means of numbers which they will extract with due formality from an urn provided for the purpose.

4. After my sanction has been received the distribution will be made by the local Magistrates in the name of Her Majesty, with due solemnity, and in the presence of all the labourers.

Art. 23. In addition to the prize of 50 dollars given to the honourable and industrious, a certificate of the fact shall be given to the recipient, together with the right of obtaining a passport gratis, when it may suit him to travel in the island.

Art. 24. The labourer who has won a prize cannot again compete for three years, at the end of which period, if his good conduct remains unimpeached, he shall be qualified to try for another.

Art. 25. If the rewarded labourer, instead of retaining those qualities which rendered him worthy of a prize, becomes vicious, he shall be brought before the local Magistrate and reprimanded; he should be exhorted to return to the life which he has abandoned, but if, notwithstanding this, he persists, his certificate shall be taken from him, he shall be deprived of its privileges, and be treated as a vagabond.

Art. 26. To stimulate the labourer to engage in honest labour and the strict performance of his duties, there will shortly be established a "monte de piedad," for the purpose of assisting him in sickness, or his family in case of death. The labourer will be expected to contribute something monthly towards it, and the Government will add to this such a sum as it may deem proper to apply.

Art. 27. The "monte" of labourers will be under the protection of the Supreme Authority of the island, and

the Intendente of the Royal Hacienda, and the Regent of the Royal Tribunals, shall be its Vice-Protectors.

Art. 28. A special regulation will establish at the proper time the administration of the "Monti," the form of subscription, the manner of increasing the funds, the cases in which subscribers shall reap its advantages, formalities to be observed in obtaining them, and for the strict performance of its pious object.

(Signed) PEZUELA.

Puerto Rico, June 11, 1849.

APPENDIX No. 2.

Regulations to be observed in the Education, Treatment, and Occupations of Slaves, by their Masters and Owners in this Island.

Chapter I.—*Of the Registration of Proprietors, and of their Titles to Slave Property, and the Declarations and Notices to be made before the Magistrates.*

(Translation.)

Article 1. THOSE who have a right to the title of estate owners, which right will be judged of by the Ayuntamientos where they exist, and where not, by the Alcaldes, shall be inscribed by these in a book or register kept by them for the purpose, and preserved by them in their archives, transmitting them monthly to the Government for the same purpose.

Art. 2. The proprietors of slaves will retain in their power their titles to the ownership of all slaves which they may possess, to be presented, in case of necessity, to the legal authority in proof of their legal acquisition, and thus prevent their loss by suspicion of clandestine introduction.

Art. 3. Legal titles are the Notarial Certificates of purchase and sale, exchange, or any other transfer of property, the schedule showing the appropriation of the slave, through the division of property by testaments or *ab intestato*, and the baptismal register of the child of a slave. A statement by witnesses, with the aid and judgment of the Syndic Procurator-General, and the

Judges' approval, will supply the want of any of these documents.

Art. 4. In the beginning of January, May, and September, the proprietors are to present to their respective Ayuntamientos, or the local Magistrates of towns which have not the former, a circumstantial statement, corroborated and signed by them, of the slaves they possess, stating sex, age, births, and deaths that may have taken place during the past period, which statement will be noted in a book kept expressly for this purpose; and the list presented by the proprietor will also be preserved.

Art. 5. When a slave dies, or is absent from the estate, the owner should report the circumstance to the Magistrate within the space of three days, that he may take note of it, for the purpose of avoiding all suspicion of having caused his death by violence; and when the owner fails to do this, he will be called upon to give satisfactory proof either of the slave's absence or of his natural death; failing in this, proceedings will accordingly be made against him.

Chap. II.—*On the Education, both Christian and Civil, that Owners should give to their Slaves.*

Article 1. Estate owners, and all possessed of slaves, of whatever class or condition, should instruct them in the principles of the Catholic Faith, and prepare them for baptism within a year, or at the furthest two years from the time of their arrival in these possessions.

Art. 2. This instruction should be given them every evening after the bell for prayer has been rung, making them repeat the "Rosario de Maria Santissima" with the most profound meekness and devotion, as is customary in all parts of the island.

Art. 3. On Sundays and all holidays proprietors should see that all slaves who have been baptized hear mass and an exposition of the Christian doctrine; they are not to be employed in any field labour, but the owner or overseer may employ some of them for two hours in sweeping and scrubbing the house and offices, and even for a longer period when it is necessary for the gathering of fruit or anything else that will not admit of delay.

Art. 4. It is the duty and strict responsibility of masters to see that in cases of necessity the "holy sacrament of baptism" be administered to the negroes, even those lately imported, and not to leave them to perish in their Paganism (for the want even of the water of succour), when any one may administer baptism in case of necessity.

Art. 5. They will also take care, under equal responsibility, that those who have already been baptized, and are old enough, should have the Holy Sacrament administered to them on days appointed by the Church, also when they ask for it or require it.

Art. 6. They should use their utmost endeavours, attention, and activity in teaching the slaves the obedience they owe to the constituted authority, and the reverence due to the clergy, to respect the whites, to behave properly to the coloured people, and to be affable to their equals.

Chap. III.—*Of their Victualling and Clothing.*

Article 1. Masters should give their slaves two or three meals a-day, as they think best; only they should be sufficient, not only for their preservation, but enough to recruit their strength. The absolutely necessary ration that each should receive daily is six or eight plantains (or their equivalent in sweet potatoes, yams, or other succulent roots), eight ounces of meat, salt fish or mackerel, and four ounces of rice, or any other ordinary mess.

Art. 2. Masters are to give their slaves three suits per annum, composed of a canvass shirt and trousers, besides a cap or hat, a neckerchief, and a flannel shirt or jacket for the winter; it would be convenient in the early part of the year, or at the time of purchasing them, if they are entirely without clothes, to give them two shirts and trousers at once, and the next at the end of eight months, that they may have a change, particularly when they get wet at their work, and that they may sleep covered, thus keeping them from sickness, and their masters from the loss of their labour and the expense of their cure.

Art. 3. The nourishment of negro children and newborn babies whose mothers are employed in field labour

must be very plain, such as broths, paps, milk, &c., till their mothers wean them, and they are not troubled by the pain of teeth-cutting.

Art. 4. During the hours that the mothers are employed in the fields, one or two negresses (whom the owner or overseer shall appoint) will be left in charge of the children in a hut supplied for the purpose.

Art. 5. If they should fall sick they should receive nourishment from their own mother, who must be taken from the fields and employed in domestic service.

Art. 6. Children of either sex should have four or six cotton chemises until they are 3 years of age, from this age until they are 6 they may have buff chemises, and from 6 to 14 the males may have trousers, and the females long shifts until they are 12; after this age they may be clothed like the rest.

Chap. IV.—*Of the Employment of Slaves.*

Article 1. Out of crop season the slaves are to work nine hours a-day, the owner dividing the labour as suits his convenience. During crop time, when work must commence betimes and continue till night, the hours of labour shall be thirteen, arranged so that the slave may have eleven hours rest during the twenty-four.

Art. 2. Every day during the hours of rest, and on feast days, the slaves are to be permitted two hours to work for their own benefit, without loss to their masters; thus affording them the means of obtaining their freedom. Their lawful earnings are to be respected by the masters, who must even afford them aid, especially when well conducted, for such a beneficent purpose.

Art. 3. Masters or overseers cannot oblige slaves more than 60 years of age, nor those less than 17, to task labour (this applies to either sex); neither are any to be employed in work not suited to their sex, age, and strength, nor in work in which females are to mix with the males, nor are the former to be employed as day labourers.

Art. 4. The slaves that are too aged or too infirm to work, as also children of both sex, are to be provided for by their owners, who cannot rid themselves of them by giving them their freedom, unless by providing them with the means of support, without need of other assist-

ance, to the satisfaction of the Magistrate and the concurrence of the Syndic Procurator.

Chap. V.—*Of the Working Implements and the Room where they must be securely kept.*

Article 1. All estates are to have a secure room with a good key, in which to place the working implements. This deposit must be under the exclusive charge of the owner or overseer, who must not trust it to anyone of the slaves.

Art. 2. When a slave is sent to his work, the implement which he is to use for the day must be given him; and when working hours are over he must return it himself, that it may be replaced in the deposit.

Art. 3. A slave must never leave his estate with any implement, much less with any arms, unless accompanied by the owner, the overseer, or the families of the above, in which case he may take his "machete."

Chap. VI.—*Of the Prohibition of Intercourse between Slaves of different Estates; the Permit necessary for leaving their own, and the Arrest of those who go without this Permit.*

Article 1. Owners and overseers must not allow their slaves intercourse with those of another estate; and to leave their own they should obtain a permit signed by their owner or overseer, with the day, month, and year expressed thereon, stating the place where they are going and the time they may stay.

Art. 2. Proprietors and non-proprietors, white and coloured, and even slaves, are authorized to stop any slave that may be seen outside his master's grounds, demand his written license, which, if not forthcoming, or having changed the route mentioned in it, or his leave having expired, to arrest him and conduct him to the nearest estate or prison, the owner or overseer of which will receive the prisoner, secure him, and give notice immediately to his master, if belonging to the same town, or to the magistrate, so that he may officially advise the owner of the fugitive.

Art. 4. Estate owners are not to receive payment for the arrest or return of fugitive slaves, or slaves found

without the aforesaid license, but are to consider as a reciprocal act of kindness to their own future advantage. Others arresting slaves are to be paid according to the rates expressed in the police regulations.

Art. 4. The owner must pay the expenses of the slave during his detention, having him brought back to his house at his own expense, and in the manner he thinks best.

Chap. VII.—*Of Amusements.*

Article 1. Owners will allow their slaves to amuse themselves on holidays in a proper manner, after having heard Mass and an exposition of the Christian doctrine, on the estate, but not in conjunction with those of others, and in an open space, where their masters and overseers may overlook them.

Art. 2. The males are to have their athletic sports by themselves, such as throwing the stone, throwing the bar, bace-bah, &c., and the females apart will play such games as "puss in the corner," and other feminine amusements; and all, that is, males and females, but also apart, may dance to the music of the leather drum, or other instruments used by savages, or the guitar and banjo, instruments played by the Creoles.

Art. 3. These games will last from 3 o'clock in the afternoon till sunset, and no longer.

Art. 4. The owners and overseers must be very careful not to allow the union of the sexes, drunkenness; neither are outsiders, slaves or freemen, to join in these festivities.

Chap. VIII.—*Of the Dwellings and Infirmaries.*

Article 1. Owners must take great care that the house of the slaves are spaciously built, in a dry and airy place, closed and well secured, with a partition between the males and females, closed with strong locks and keys.

Art. 2. At bed-time, which is to be 8 in the winter and 9 o'clock in the summer time, an order will be sent round to the slaves that no one is to sleep outside the barracks except those the masters appoint to keep the night-watch.

Art. 3. The barracks of the slaves are to be provided with lights all through the night, and two watchmen are to be appointed to maintain silence, and if any movement, or the arrival of any stranger is seen by them, timely notice is to be given.

Art. 4. Proprietors must have a separate place for the sick, with the same and greater comfort, security, and precaution as the healthy ones have. Every slave shall have an elevated bed to himself, if there is sufficient space, or on a platform, sufficiently airy to facilitate the cure of those placed upon it. Each one shall have a mattrass, mat, pillow, rug, and sheet.

Art. 5. Owners, not only for their own interest, but as an act of justice and humanity, must grant them medical assistance during a dangerous sickness, and medicines when slightly indisposed, but always with good broth and clean food.

Chap. IX.—*Of the Marriage of Slaves, and how to act in cases when the pair belong to different Owners.*

Article 1. Slave owners must endeavour to prevent the unlawful union of the sexes, and encourage marriage even with slaves of other owners; in the latter case permitting the couples to meet in houses.

Art 2. To maintain this union, and that the married couple may perform their matrimonial duties, the woman must go to her husband, whose master must purchase her by mutual contract, at a just value fixed by arbitrators nominated by both parties; in case of disagreement a third shall be named by the Magistrate; if the master of the man will not purchase her the same process must be adopted for the purchase of the man by the woman's owner.

Art. 3. If the man's owner purchase the woman, and she has children under 3 years of age, he must buy them also, as it is right that, until that age, the woman shall retain the charge of her children.

Chap. X.—*Of the Sale of Slaves and their Value.*

Article 1. Although owners are free to sell their slaves as they may wish, they may also be obliged to do so by a decision of a Magistrate for oppres-

sion, bad treatment, or any other inhuman or improper mode of treatment.

Art. 2. When owners sell their slaves voluntarily they are free to do so at the prices offered according to their value (provided they have not already received sums on account of the slave's freedom).

Art. 3. When owners are obliged by the authorities to sell their slaves their price shall be fixed by arbitrators, and, in case of disagreement, it shall be decided by the magistrate in accordance with their market value; but should anyone present himself desirous of purchasing without the valuation but by private contract, he can do so, the law being powerless to prevent him, its authority being confined to obliging the master to sell.

Art. 4. Slaves whose value has been limited (by payments on account of freedom) cannot be sold for a higher price, the responsibility of the former payments passing to purchaser.

Art. 5. The children of women whose value has thus been limited do not enjoy the benefit of this limitation, but may be sold for any amount agreed upon by the owner and purchaser, or by arbitration and appeal, in case of disagreement, in accordance with Articles 3 and 4 of this chapter.

Chap. XI.—*Of the Freedom of Slaves and the manner of obtaining it.*

Article 1. Owners shall give freedom to their slaves upon their repaying the money at which they were valued, when legally acquired. If the master and slave disagree respecting the price of freedom, two arbitrators, one nominated by the former and the other by the Syndic of the Corporation, as the protector of slaves, shall fix the just price of the petitioner for emancipation; if the arbitrators disagree, the Magistrate shall appoint an umpire, whose decision shall be final.

Art. 2. Freedom will be given to any slave who gives notice of a conspiracy formed either by his class, or by freemen, to disturb public tranquillity, or to murder his master or family. In the first case, the body of estate-owners must subscribe for the purchase of his freedom, and a present of 500 dollars, stating, in a public letter to him, the reason of his having gained his liberty; if there

were many informers, they shall all be freed, and the 500 dollars divided between them. In the second case, the persons saved from their persecutors and assassins shall bear the expense solely of freeing their deliverer or deliverers.

Art. 3. That these rewards may not be abused, they shall be preceded by proper judicial inquiry, to prove the truth of the denouncement; and should it prove false, the slave shall be returned to the Judge, that he may be properly punished as a false calumniator.

Art. 4. A slave may also obtain his freedom by will or gift, or by any other means by which freemen become possessed of property.

Chap. XII.—*Of the Reward to which Slaves who have served well are entitled, and the time of presenting them.*

Article 1. The slave who has served upon an estate with fidelity and constancy for the space of thirty-five years, counting from his having attained the age of 15, obtains the privilege of not working during the first quarter of the day; and he who continues the same good conduct for a further period of ten years, need only work half the day, with liberty to work for his own benefit during the other half; and he who continues to work well for five years more, when he will then have reached his 65th year, becomes entirely free; but his master will retain the obligation of keeping him on his estate, and of providing for him, should he voluntarily return to it, or should the authorities send him there on account of his poverty.

Chap. XIII.—*On the Duties of Slaves and their Punishments.*

Article 1. Although owners of slaves should feed, educate, and employ them in tasks fitted to their age and sex, without neglecting the young, the aged, and the infirm, the slaves on their part are obliged to obey their masters and overseers, doing the tasks given them to the best of their ability, and to venerate them as fathers; and failing in any of these duties, they may and should be punished for the offences they commit, either by their master or their overseer, according to the magnitude of

the offence, with imprisonment, shackles, chains, stocks; but their heads must not be placed in the latter, or with lashes, not exceeding five-and-twenty.

Art. 2. When slaves commit excesses, offences, or crimes against their master, his wife, or children, the overseer, or any other person, for the punishment or correction of which the correctional measures in the preceding Article are not sufficient, the delinquent is to be secured by the master or overseer, or any one present at the commission of the crime; and the injured person, or his representative, must complain before a Court of Justice, and the master of the slave cited, if he has not previously abandoned his "right of protection" before the case is entered into, and if he be not a party interested and included in the complaint; the Syndic Procurator will then proceed with the case, in accordance with the Laws and Royal Decrees or orders for the form and course of the process, and the infliction of proper punishment. If the master does not abandon his right of protecting the slave, and he be condemned in damages for injuries inflicted on a third person, he will be held personally responsible for them, and the slave himself shall suffer corporal punishment, according to the gravity of the offence which he has committed.

Chap. XIV.—*Of those who are to Lash, Shackle, or put Slaves to Death.*

Article 1. Only owners and overseers may punish their slaves correctionally, and with the moderation before mentioned; and no one else can punish them, injure, or kill them, without incurring the penalties established by law in the cases of freemen.

Art. 2. The cause of the injured slave will be prosecuted at the instance of his master, who will attend to it during its procedure and decision; and in default of his doing so by the Procurador Syndic, in his quality of Protector of Slaves, except in such cases where the gravity of the offence, and the public security, require the direct interference of the Fiscal Minister.

Chap. XV.—*Of the Offences and Crimes of Owners and Overseers.*

Article 1. The owners of slaves, or the overseers of

estates, who fail to carry into effect any of the preceding Articles of these Regulations, will be fined 50 dollars for the first breach of it, 100 dollars for the second, and 200 dollars for the third, which fines the owner will pay, even when his overseer is the culprit; if he should not have the means of paying himself, the said fines to be remitted to the Government, to be divided into three parts, for the Informer, the Judge, and the Treasury, or special deposit kept for the purposes specified below.

Art. 2. If the offence of the owners or overseers should be excessive punishment, inflicting serious contusions, loss of blood, or mutilation of members, in addition to the pecuniary fines above mentioned, a criminal prosecution shall be instituted against them by the Procurator Syndic, to prove the offence, and impose the punishment commensurate to the crime, and obliging the master to sell the slave to some other owner if he be in condition to work, or if crippled, to free him, the guilty owner contributing a sum to be fixed by the Government or Judge, for the maintenance and clothing of the slave during his life, payable by thirds in advance.

Art. 3. In consequence of the distance between many estates and the towns, and the prohibitions against slaves leaving the latter without a license from the owner or overseer, stating the object of their leaving, and other circumstances provided for in the first Article of the 6th Chapter, and the laws and circulars against aiding, protecting, or concealing fugitive slaves, it might be difficult for them to complain of the cruelty of their masters or overseers, therefore, in order to facilitate its discovery, it is ordered that the local Magistrates in person, or responsible persons appointed by them, shall visit the estates at least three times a-year, to obtain information upon the points mentioned in this instruction, and acquainting the Government with the result; that sufficient evidence being obtained, it may be remedied by the judgment of the Procurator Syndic, who, in some popular manner, shall denounce the offence, or default of compliance with any of the preceding Articles; on the understanding that any informer's name shall be kept secret, and a part of the beforementioned fine be given to him; and no other responsibility attach to him, except it should be proved notarially that his information and denouncement was calumnious.

Chap. XVI.—*Deposit of Fines.*

There shall be kept in the Town Hall of this city a chest, with three keys, of which the Magistrate, the Senior Regidor, and the Procurator Syndic, shall each have one, in which to deposit the product of all fines, punishments, and condemnations, applicable to all cases proceeding from these Regulations, strict attention being paid to the manner of its application, it being absolutely prohibited to use the smallest sum for any purpose not mentioned in them, nor even for them, without the sanction of the Government, and a permit signed by the keepers of the keys, stating its object, they remaining responsible, and forced to reimburse monies spent for purposes just or unjust, if disapproved of by the Intendente, to whom they are to be accurately submitted, with an account of the receipts, &c., and vouchers for the expenditure.

And that all may be aware of these Regulations, and that owners may not plead ignorance of them, they shall be published in the usual form in this capital, and in the other towns and villages, the territorial Magistrates paying the strictest attention to their scrupulous observance, co-operating with the Government in guarding its strict fulfilment, in the interests of religion, State, morality, humanity, and public tranquillity.

(Signed) MIGUEL DE SORRE.

Puerto Rico, August 12, 1826.

APPENDIX No. 3.

Preliminary Law for Emancipating the Slaves in the Spanish Dominions, which passed the Cortes on the 23*rd June*, 1870.

(Translation.)

DON FRANCISCO SERRANO Y DOMINGUEZ, Regent of the kingdom by the will of the Sovereign Cortes, to all those by whom these presents may be seen and understood, greeting; the Sovereign Cortes, of the Spanish nation, in right of its sovereignty, decrees and sanctions the following:—

Article 1. All children of slave mothers, born after the publication of this law, are declared free.

Art. 2. All slaves born after September 17, 1868, to the publication of this law, are taken charge of by the State, who will pay their owners the sum of 125 pesetas.

Art. 3. All slaves who have served under the Spanish flag, who have in any way aided the troops during the present insurrection in Cuba, are declared free; in like manner those will be recognized as such who have been freed by the Captain-General of Cuba, in virtue of his authority. The State will indemnify those masters who have remained faithful to the Spanish cause, but insurgent owners will have no claim to compensation.

Art. 4. The slaves who, at the publication of this law, shall have attained the age of 60, are declared free without indemnity to their owners; and the same right shall be enjoyed by those who hereafter reach that age.

Art. 5. All slaves, who from whatever cause belong to the State, are declared free, as well as those who, under the title of "Emancipados," are protected by the State, but will at once enter upon the full exercise of their rights.

Art. 6. Those made free by the 1st and 2nd Articles of this law will remain under the patronage of the owners of their mothers, unless indemnified in accordance with the provisions contained in Article 11.

Art. 7. The patronage referred to in the previous Article imposes upon the patron the obligation to maintain his pupils, clothe them, afford them medical assistance, and primary instruction, and an education so as to enable them to engage in some trade.

The patron acquires all the rights of a guardian, and may besides make use of the freedman's labour, gratuitously, to the age of 18 years.

Art. 8. Upon reaching 18 years of age the freedman will earn half the wages of a freeman; of this he shall receive at once one half, and the other half shall be reserved to form a capital, in the manner determined by future dispositions.

Art. 9. Upon arriving at 22 years of age, the freedman acquires the enjoyment of his full rights, the patronage shall cease, and his capital be delivered to him.

Art. 10. The patronage will also terminate.

1st. By the marriage of the freedman; when contracted by females above 14 years, or by males above 18.

2nd. For proved cruelty on the part of the patron, or for neglect of the duties imposed by Article 7.

3rd. When the patron prostitutes, or aids in the prostitution of the freedwoman.

Art. 11. The patronage is transmissible by all means recognized in law, and is renouncible for just causes. All fathers, legitimate or natural, being free, can reclaim the patronage of their children, paying the patron an indemnity for expenses incurred for their benefit. Further dispositions will fix the bases of this indemnity.

Art. 12. The chief Civil Governor will, within the space of one month from the publication of this law, draw up lists of all slaves included in Articles 3 and 5.

Art. 13. The freedmen and freemen referred to in the preceding Article will be under the protection of the State, limited to personal protection and defence, and obtaining them the means of subsistence, without in any way infringeing upon their liberty. Those who prefer returning to Africa will be sent there.

Art. 14. The slaves referred to in Article 4 may remain in their master's houses, who would in that case become their patrons. When they have so determined to remain in their master's houses, it shall be at the option of the taker to remunerate them or not; but in all cases, especially in that of physical impossibility to maintain themselves, they shall be obligod to feed, clothe, treat them in sickness, and have the right to occupy them in light work suitable to their state. If the freedman refuses to comply with his obligation to work, or produces disturbances in the house of his patron, the public authority shall decide the question, first hearing the freedman.

Art. 15. If the freedman shall voluntarily leave the patronage of his former master, the obligations contained in the preceding Article shall be of no effect as regards the latter.

Art. 16. The Governor shall adjudge the amount necessary for the indemnities to which this law has given rise, by means of a tax levied upon those who remain in slavery, comprehending all betwixt the ages of 2 and 60.

Art. 17. The crime of cruelty, proved and punished by the tribunals of justice, will carry with it the consequence of the liberty of the slave who suffered it.

Art. 18. All concealment which impedes the application of the benefits of this law shall be punished in accordance with Article 13 of the Penal Code.

Art. 19. All slaves shall be considered free who were not returned at the census of the 31st December, 1869, in the Island of Puerto Rico, or who shall not be returned in that of the 31st December, 1870, in the Island of Cuba.

Art. 20. The Government will promulgate a special measure for the fulfilment of this law.

Art. 21. The Government will present to the Cortes, as soon as the Cuban Deputies are admitted, a Project of Law for the indemnified emancipation of those who remained in slavery after the establishment of this law. Until this emancipation is effected, the punishment of flogging authorized by the 13th chapter of the Regulations of Puerto Rico, and its equivalent in Cuba, is suppressed.

Nor can children under 14 years of age be sold separately from their mothers, nor slaves united in matrimony.

By order of the Constituent Cortes, this is communicated to the Regent of the Kingdom for its promulgation as law.

(Signed) MANUEL RUIZ ZORROLEA,
President.

Palace of the Cortes, June 23, 1870.

Therefore, I order all Tribunals of Justice, Chiefs, Governors, and other authorities as well Civil as Military and Ecclesiastic, of whatever class or dignity, to obey and have obeyed, fulfil and execute the above law.

(Signed) FRANCISCO SERRANO.

San Ildefonso, July 4, 1870.

VALENCIA.

Report by Vice-Consul Dart on the Position of the Artizans and Industrial Classes in the City of Valencia and neighbouring Towns.

For the last twelve years there has been a general scarcity of work in all branches, owing to the decadence of the silk manufactures that have been outstripped by France, to the stagnation in building houses, and in great measure to the unsettled state of political affairs, that checks commercial enterprise and the freer circulation of money.

The wages earned barely suffice to support the workmen and their families; and this much they can do owing to the climate, frugality, and temperance, which is admirable.

This narrative demonstrates an over supply of workmen in this district, and consequently no opening for the introduction of labour from other places. The *purchasing power* of money is greater here than in Great Britain, in consequence of the warm climate and the habits of the people, requiring fewer comforts, less clothing, and to there being fewer amusements and attractions to induce workmen to spend money, also to their temperate habits.

The government lottery, however, is a drawback to the workman saving any small surplus of his expenditure, and not unfrequently causing him to deny his family some wants in order to try his luck in the lottery.

The quality of the work done is not generally of the best, excepting masonry, which is solid and good. It has been observed that these workmen learn quickly and improve their work when aided by the good example from strangers and foreigners.

The Valencian works hard, and is dutiful and intelligent.

Workmen usually live in small brick houses built for the labouring classes, containing a ground floor and two storeys or flats, which flats are divided into two dwellings, viz., one on each side of the staircase that runs through

the middle of the house. Each dwelling has an entry or hall, two sleeping rooms, kitchen, watercloset, and a well from which each dwelling can draw water, as there is an opening in the kitchen to reach the rope that draws the buckets. The rent of these dwellings averages 400 reals per annum, equal to 83*s.* 4*d.* sterling. In some cases several families club together and hire a large house, and divide off the apartments each family requires; one of the heads of family directs the whole establishment, and settles with the landlord, and sub-lets to the other families.

The ventilation in these houses is not generally good, because the streets are narrow, and the houses crowded together; the inhabitants can, however, keep the doors and windows open nearly all the year round, owing to the climate. Drainage is only middling, but no risks of any importance to health occur.

Lodgings are obtained close to the work, owing to the custom of living in the towns; even the country labourers go great distances to their work and return to town at sunset.

There was a project to build a barrier of workmen's houses in the suburbs of Valencia, but political affairs have smothered the project.

Wages.—Common labourers usually gain in Valencia 7 reals (1*s.* 5*d.*) to 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) per day, in the country 5 reals (1*s.*) in winter, and from 7 reals (1*s.* 5*d.*) to 8 rials (1*s.* 8*d.*) per day in summer. Those who have not regular employment assemble daily in the principal square of the town, and wait to be hired by the day or for jobs.

Masons.—Head masons 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*) to 12 reals (2*s.* 6*d.*) per day, and labourers 5 reals (1*s.*) to 6 reals (1*s.* 3*d.*) per day, according to the season of the year, as the working hours are from daylight to sunset. Half an hour is allowed for breakfast, and two hours for dinner.

Carpenters, locksmiths, &c.—Carpenters earn 9 reals (1*s.* 10*d.*) to 12 reals (2*s.* 6*d.*), according to their work. Lads from 15 to 18 years of age 6 reals (1*s.* 3*d.*) to 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) Working hours always commence at 6 A.M. and finish at 7 P.M. Breakfast in summer from 8 until 8·45 A.M., and in winter from 8·15 until 8·45 A.M. Dinner from 14th September to 3rd May from 12 A.M.

to 1·30 P.M., and from 3rd May to 14th September from 12 A.M. to 2 P.M. When there is a press of work they earn half wages for the following extra hours, 15 minutes less breakfast time, 30 minutes less dinner time, and from 7 P.M. to 10 P.M.

Carpenters are a very numerous class, and they find little work.

Sawyers earn 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) to 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*) per day.

Locksmiths.—A trade so closely allied to the carpenters meet the same scarcity of work. They earn 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) to 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*) per day, but in the foundries they earn as much as up to 16 reals (3*s.* 4*d.*) and 18 rials (3*s.* 9*d.*) per day.

Machine-shops.—Fitters and turners 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*) to 16 reals (3*s.* 4*d.*) per day, labourers 7 reals (1*s.* 5*d.*) to 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) per day.

Ironfounders.—Moulders 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) to 16 reals (3*s.* 4*d.*) per day, labourers 7 reals (1*s.* 5*d.*) to 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) per day.

Weavers of woollen stuffs, baizes, &c. live chiefly in the towns close to Valencia, and, as a class, are thriving and honourable. They work in their own houses, and have work all the year round. Working hours in winter 5 A.M. to 8 P.M., and summer 5 A.M. to 7 P.M. Wages from 2 reals (5*d.*) to 3½ reals (8¾*d.*) per yard, which yields them on an average 12 reals (2*s.* 6*d.*) per day. These workmen take a pride in their work. The looms cost about 120 reals (25*s.*) each. Their houses generally are of a ground floor, with a wide hall through the house, with doors at both ends, one or two small bed-rooms, and a kitchen, or place to cook, in the hall. The looms are placed in the hall wherever there is best light. The rent is about 360 reals (75*s.*) per annum. Their food is in the morning bread and pilchards, or codfish, and wine, and fruit, when in season, substitutes the fish. The cost of such a breakfast, including wine, is 2½ reals. Dinner: boiled or stewed rice, mixed with codfish, and sometimes beef, but not very often. At night a meal similar to the morning one, only of a little more cost.

Seamstresses.—Shirtmakers 4 reals (10*d.*) to 5 rials (1*s.*) per day, whether working in their houses or in shops; some gain 6 reals (1*s.* 3*d.*) per day.

In tailoring, in the shops 4 reals (10*d.*) to 6 reals

(1*s.* 3*d.*) per day, in their houses 7 reals (1*s.* 5*d.*) to 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) per day. Cutters, 16 reals (3*s.* 4*d.*) to 40 reals (8*s.* 4*d.*) per day.

Tailors, 10 reals (2*s.* 2*d.*) to 14 reals (2*s.* 11*d.*) per day in the shops, and 18 reals (3*s.* 9*d.*) to 20 reals (4*s.* 2*d.*) in their own houses. Apprentices—boys 2 reals (5*d.*) to 4 reals (10*d.*) per day, girls 1 real (2½*d.*) to 2 reals (5*d.*) per day.

Shoemakers, 9 reals (1*s.* 10*d.*) per day, from 7 A.M. to 6 P.M., and paid weekly. Women riveters 4 rials (10*d.*) per day, 7 A.M. to 8 P.M.

Hatters, first class men 16 reals (3*s.* 4*d.*) to 18 reals (3*s.* 9*d.*), second class men 10 reals (2*s.* 2*d.*) to 12 reals (2*s.* 6*d.*), women binders 5 reals (10*d.*) to 4 reals (1*s.*) per day. There is in this trade a good deal of work after hours, the wages for which are, first class 3 reals (7*d.*) per hour, second class 2 reals (5*d.*), women 1 real (2½*d.*)

Watchmakers.—There are not many; they earn 12 reals (2*s.* 6*d.*) to 16 reals (3*s.* 4*d.*) per day.

Saddlers.—10 reals (2*s.* 2*d.*) per day, paid weekly. Work from 7 A.M. to 1 P.M. and 2 to 7 P.M. Second class workmen 6 reals (1*s.* 3*d.*) to 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) per day. Apprentices 2 reals (5*d.*) to 3 reals (7*d.*) per day.

Skin dressers.—10 reals (2*s.* 2*d.*) per day, paid weekly. Apprentices, 2 reals (5*d.*) to 3 reals (7*d.*); work from 6 A.M. to 7 P.M.

Fan makers.—Workmen, 20 reals (4*s.* 2*d.*) per day; painters, 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*) to 12 reals (2*s.* 6*d.*); women, 3 reals (7*d.*) to 6 reals (1*s.* 3*d.*); work 10 to 12 hours per day.

Chocolate makers.—12 reals (2*s.* 6*d.*) for every 28 lbs., which is the most they are able to make in one day. The labour is fatiguing, as the paste is made and ground in stone slabs, with stone rollers, and the men are on their knees at this work.

Cigar makers.—Men 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*) per day; women, 4 reals (10*d.*) per day. Hours, 9 A.M. to sunset. The women come great distances, and return at night to their houses.

Oil labourers, in the city of Valencia, loading and unloading carts, which requires strong men, earn 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) per day, and some 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*), according to their strength.

Silk weavers.—Labourers are divided into two classes,

viz., master weavers and workmen or labourers. The masters receive the silk from the manufacturer, and weave it in their own houses in looms and appurtenances belonging to them, charging the workmen for their use from a quarter of a real (½*d.*) to 4 reals (10*d.*) per yard.

This trade has declined so much that the workmen barely make 6 reals (1*s.* 3*d.*) to 8 reals (1*s.* 8*d.*) per day; in fact they are to some extent in distress. Large numbers of women are employed in preparing the silk for weaving, and also in weaving handkerchiefs and plain silks. They earn 4 reals (10*d.*) to 5 reals (1*s.*) per day. The working hours in this trade are all daylight from April to September, and from daylight, or say daybreak, to 9 or 10 P.M. from October to May.

At the Port.—Stevedores, 20 reals (4*s.* 2*d.*) per day. Chief stevedore, 30 reals (6*s.* 3*d.*) per day.

Food.—The usual food of the working classes is the following:—

Breakfast, dried codfish or tunny, pilchards, capsicum, bread, fruit, and wine. Dinner, a stew of codfish or tunny, but generally a thick soup of rice with parsnips or beans, bread, fruit, and wine. Supper, same as the dinner.

There are no statistics kept of the proportion of the industrial classes to the other classes.

The purchasing power of wages and provisions is, on an average, the following:—

	£	s.	d.
A workman earns on an average 3,300 reals per annum, equal to	34	7	6
His expenditure is—	£	s.	d.
Lodging, per annum ..	4	3	4
Food, ditto	20	6	8
Clothing, ditto ..	5	4	2
Sick fund, ditto ..	0	10	6
	30	4	8
Balance in his favour ..	4	2	10

which balance is expended, or required for other necessaries for his family.

The prices of provisions are the following:—

	Reals.	s.	d.
Bread, per lb. of 16 ounces	$0\frac{3}{4}$ =	0	2
Potatoes, ditto	$0\frac{1}{4}$	0	$0\frac{1}{2}$
Rice, ditto	1	2	$0\frac{1}{2}$
Codfish, ditto	2	0	5
Funny, ditto	$1\frac{1}{2}$	0	4
Pilchards, per dozen	1	0	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Bacon, per lb. of 16 ounces	4	0	10
Mutton, ditto	$2\frac{1}{2}$	0	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Beef, ditto	3	0	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Oil, ditto	$2\frac{1}{2}$	0	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Wine, per quart bottle	$0\frac{3}{4}$	0	2
Charcoal, per 25 lbs. of 16 ounces ..	6	1	3

(Signed) JOSEPH HENRY DART.

Valencia, September 28, 1870.

SWEDEN.

Mr. G. H. Jerningham to Earl Granville.—(Received December .)

My Lord, *Stockholm, December* 1, 1870.

With reference to the Earl of Clarendon's Circular despatch of the 7th June last, I have the honour to transmit a supplementary Report, which has been drawn up by Mr. Jocelyn, Secretary to this Legation, upon the condition of the industrial classes in Sweden.

I have, &c.

(Signed) G. H. JERNINGHAM.

Inclosure.

Further Report by Mr. Jocelyn on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Sweden.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money in Stockholm.*

A knowledge of the purchase power of money is gained by a comparison between the price of labour and that of the necessaries of life in any given place.

In my former Report upon the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Sweden, I stated the wages usually paid in the manufacturing towns.

It will be well, however, to recapitulate these briefly.

It was stated that the average wages of an artizan in Stockholm, and other large Swedish towns, were 2 rix-dollars, equal to 2*s.* 3*d.* per day. They are seldom less, but frequently reach, in the case of skilled workmen, 14, 18, or even 23 dollars a week—about 1*l.* 5*s.*

Almost all work is now done by the piece and not by time, except of course in cotton factories, and the wages therefore very much depend upon the ability and skill of the workman.

Generally speaking, mechanics, and those whose trade demands a finer species of work, do not earn any higher wages than others, and it is found that among the most

prosperous are ironfounders and iron-foundry mould and model makers.

Indeed, handicrafts requiring long experience and steady attention command a higher price than those which, like watchmaking and mathematical instrument making, are dependent upon manual dexterity.

Some allowance must also be made on this score—viz., that the production of the latter class of articles is but limited and fully equal to the local demand, whereas the former includes many trades which mainly supply the foreign market, and produce articles extensively exported.

The necessaries of life to an artizan may be classed under the heads of Lodgings, Food, Drink, Clothing, Drainage, and Ventilation.

Lodgings.—Lodgings suitable for artizans are plentiful in Stockholm, and are situated within a short distance of their work, as they are to be procured in all quarters of the town.

The poorer classes of workmen often sleep several in one room, but this applies chiefly to day labourers and those who cannot depend upon a weekly salary.

The artizans, when unmarried, occupy one room a piece, for which some pay as little as 4 rix-dollars (*4s. 6d.*) per month; but in this case the landlord or letter of the room sleeps in a small closet off it during the night, and makes use of his lodger's room while he is absent at his work during the day.

Should the room be decently furnished, and comfortably warmed in winter, the rent would be about 8 or 15 dollars per month (*8s. 6d.* to *16s.*) according to situation and accommodation.

Married men with families generally hire one or two rooms and a kitchen, for which about 250 dollars (*14l.*) per annum is usually paid; but these apartments vary still more in price, and are of course unfurnished and unwarmed.

The generality of the rooms are low and not very well ventilated, especially in winter, when, owing to the cold, double windows are used, the inner one being pasted up so as to exclude all air. One pane is often made to open, but this is frequently not the case, and all ventilation will then depend upon the slight draught between the door and stove.

The workmen's buildings recently erected at Norrköping and some other large towns, and specially mentioned and described in my former Report, are very superior in this respect to any private lodgings which an artizan would inhabit in the capital.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Drainage.—Drainage, as such, cannot be said to exist in Stockholm at all. Some years ago the subject was discussed, and many projects were proposed for supplying the town with sewers; but the idea was abandoned, chiefly on account of the great expense attending the tunnelling and cutting through the very hard rock upon which the city stands.

The municipal authorities now congratulate themselves that the plan was not carried out. They are convinced that the country gains by the present system, which is to immediately convert all refuse into an excellent manure, just in proportion to the rapidity with which it is produced. They maintain that by so doing the incalculable loss of the most valuable ingredients of manure, caused by the flushing of sewers—namely, that of the phosphates and other soluble salts—is altogether prevented.

The population of Stockholm is 132,000, and yet so admirably does the present system work that the refuse of the town is not permitted to remain for longer than a few hours within it before it is carried forth and converted into a useful agricultural manure.

No cesspools or other accumulations of decomposing matter are tolerated, and, except during the summer months, all unpleasantness is avoided. A very efficient staff of scavengers is maintained, and on the whole the town is at least as well off in respect of health from drainage as most other capitals.

Dry closets are universally used, and the regulations respecting them are enforced by the municipality.

The public health does not appear to suffer from the system, the rate of mortality being about 26 per thousand.

It may, therefore, be concluded that the family of a working man runs fewer risks from bad drainage in Sweden than in many other countries.

Food.—The food of the working classes consists of

meat (beef and pork), rye flour baked into hard cakes, soup made from vegetables and meat, eggs, and milk.

These provisions are generally plentiful and cheap, when compared with those to be bought in London, and the expense of food may be taken to average about 5 dollars, 5*s.* 6*d.* per week.

The unmarried artizans generally adopt this mode of payment, and receive in return a good breakfast of coffee and bread and butter, a good dinner, and supper. Meat is given once every day, and in this respect the artizan is well off in Sweden.

A married man, with wife and children, will spend about 12 dollars (13*s.*) per week on his housekeeping, including every item. This depends, however, a good deal on his wages, and the wife is frequently a source of assistance to her husband in taking in needle-work or washing, and often doubles her husband's income by so doing.

Drink.—The usual beverage of the artizan is certainly Bavarian beer, which, although so called, is all manufactured in the country. In the neighbourhood of Stockholm there are four large establishments where both beer and porter are made, and these supply the surrounding districts.

It is sold in pint bottles at 12 ore, or 1½*d.*, and the wholesale cost to the retailer is 6 ore, or ¾*d.* This beer is not strong, but is very refreshing, and made from pure malt and hops, and is perfectly harmless and good.

Porter, in imitation of English, is largely manufactured at Gothenburg, but I cannot ascertain that it is in much favour among the working classes. It is sold at a dearer rate than the beer.

The decrease of drunkenness in Sweden during the last six years is one of the most remarkable features in the great improvement observable in the general moral and social character and bearing of its people. A considerable increase in the excise duty upon spirits has been maintained for some years, and has given an impetus to the manufacture of beer, which has now to a great extent taken the place of brandy.

When this latter is used the public are able to test its quality by very simple means, 5 degrees of strength being regarded as imperative upon the distiller by law.

Taken in moderation the Swedish branvin is a com-

paratively harmless and pure stimulant, often rendered absolutely necessary by the severity of the climate.

Clothing.—The excessive rigour of a Swedish winter, which will frequently send the thermometer down to 25° and 30° below the freezing-point of centigrade, requires that the dress of the artizan should be very warm.

Woollen materials are not wanting, and are to be procured cheap and good. The working man, who earns fair wages, takes a pride in having his clothes, and especially his linen, clean and of good quality.

The linen shirting worn by the lower classes averages from 9*d.* to 1*s.* per English yard, and is found to be so much more durable than cotton fabrics at the same price as to be preferred to them.

House and table linen is much sought after in Sweden, and it not unfrequently happens that in the dwelling of a prosperous artizan these articles are found of a quality and in quantities which would in no way disgrace the establishments of the higher classes.

As to woollen clothes, a very good suit, consisting of coat, waistcoat, and trousers, may be obtained for 25 dollars (1*l.* 7*s.*), and the material at that price is durable and fair.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

On this point it is difficult to give any very exact reply to the question asked.

Although the Swedish workman, if he exerts himself, can doubtless vie with rivals of any nation, still I cannot say that, from my experience, there appears to exist here that spirit of emulation in producing the best possible workmanship which obtains in England.

Prices are generally low, and the public will not pay a higher price for the same article merely because it is better made.

The great *forte* of the Swedish artizan appears to be machinery, and in the construction of this he, I believe, is equal to almost any one.

Those who have seen the steam-engines of Gothenburg or of Motala must have observed the extreme beauty of their construction, as well as the fitness of their design; and although the price of the articles is higher than in England, owing to the absence of mechanical assistance and the greater value of the materials employed,

this very point serves to prove the excellence of the workmanship. At Motala, and I believe also at Gothenburg, some English artizans are employed; but, although quicker in work, and perhaps more generally intelligent, I do not imagine that the work turned out by them differs in any respect from that done by the native workman.

In other trades, however, I do not think much pride is taken in his work by the Swedish artizan; and this is in a great measure owing to the call for cheapness prevailing in our day, which has lowered the quality of work, and at the same time the interest taken in its execution. Considerable delay and annoyance are caused by the dilatory character of many Swedish workmen, and very frequently punctuality is sacrificed to indolence. The public themselves appear scarcely to appreciate the value of this most important quality in a manufacturer, and as long as that is the case no improvement can be expected.

I should, therefore, say that were an English artizan to settle in Sweden, and work for the pay of the country, he would find that the wages bear a greater proportion to the expenditure here than they do in England, although I am comparatively ignorant of the exact purchase power of money at home.

I.—*Purchase Power.*

Labour . ..	Averages 800 dollars, say 50*l.* per annum.
Provisions ...	For single man, 260 dollars, say 15*l.* per annum. For family, about double.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet as in England; beer chief beverage.

Clothing, warm; woollen may be worn always.

Lodging, for family, 30 per cent. of wages; single, 8 per cent.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Mechanical work decidedly good. Other cannot be depended upon.

(Signed) NASSAU JOCELYN.

Stockholm, December 1, 1870.

GOTHENBURG.

Consul Engström to Earl Granville.—(Received November 7.)

My Lord, *Gothenburg, November* 4, 1870.

PURSUANT to the instructions contained in Circular despatch of the 7th June last, I have the honour to transmit to your Lordship a Report on the condition of the industrial classes in Gothenburg and its environs.

I have, &c.

(Signed) C. F. ENGSTRÖM.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Engström on the Economical, Moral, and Social State of the Industrial Classes of Gothenburg and its Environs.

1. *Rates of Wages of the different classes of Artizans and Workmen.*

	Per Diem.		English Equivalents.	
	R. öre.	R. öre.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
A.—In Mechanical and Engineering Establishments—				
Skilled workmen	2 50	to 3 0	2 9	to 3 4
Ordinary workmen	1 50	2 0	1 8	2 3
Boys and apprentices ..	0 75	1 25	0 10	1 4½
B.—Bead, Cotton and Linen Mills—				
Men	1 50	3 0	1 8	3 4
Women	0 70	1 25	0 9	1 4½
Boys and girls	0 50	1 0	0 6¾	1 1½
C.—Tobacco and Snuff Manufactories—				
Men	1 50	3 0	1 8	3 4
Women	0 75	1 50	0 10	1 8
Girls and boys	0 50	1 0	0 6¾	1 1½
D.—Printing Establishments, Sugar Works, Breweries, Tan Yards, &c.—				
Men	1 50	3 0	1 8	3 4
Women and Boys	0 50	1 50	0 6¾	1 8
E.—Shipwrights, Carpenters, Bricklayers, Paviours—				
Men	1 50	4 0	1 8	4 6
(Bricklayers are best paid, but can only work 8 months in the year.)				
F.—Workmen employed in loading and discharging cargoes	2 50	4 0	2 9	4 6
G.—Common labourers	1 50	2 0	1 8	2 3

2. *Hours of Work.*—During summer work generally begins at 5 A.M., and ceases at 7 or 8 P.M., with two or two and a-half hours' of rest during the day; in winter it begins at 6 A.M., and generally ends at 7 P.M., with one and a-half to two hours of rest, so that a working day in summer is generally twelve to twelve and a-half hours, and in winter ten and a-half to eleven hours.

3. *Mode of Payment.*—The workmen are, as a common rule, paid for the day's work, and not by the hour; in one or two establishments only are the wages calculated per hour, and then only for skilled workmen. In this case the wages per hour range from 25 to 30 ore (3½*d.* to 4*d.*). In most industrial establishments the wages are paid weekly, on the Friday evening, to enable the workmen to purchase their provisions on the Saturday, that being market day. Formerly, Saturday used to be the pay day, but it was found that a great portion of the week's wages was consumed in drink on the Sunday; since Friday has become the pay day an alteration for the better has taken place.

In some establishments and trades the payment is calculated by piece-work, and not by the day, and the earnings of workmen so paid are generally better by 10 to 30 per cent.

Mode of Life of the Industrial Classes in and about Gothenburg.

1. *Lodgings.*—The lodgings of the labouring classes are in general confined to one room and a kitchen for each family, with needful out-houses for fuel and other necessaries; in some cases two families have one kitchen in common.

Some of the more skilled and better paid workmen occupy apartments, consisting of two rooms, with kitchen and necessary out-houses.

House-rent for one room and a kitchen ranges from 7 riksdalers to 10 riksdalers (7*s.* 9*d.* to 11*s.* 1*d.*) per month, and for two rooms and kitchen 12 riksdalers to 13 riksdalers, 50 ore (13*s.* 4*d.* to 15*s.*).

During the last twenty years a great and marked improvement has taken place in respect of the lodgings of the labouring classes in Gothenburg, owing principally to the erection of a number of model lodging-

houses, at present offering accommodation to about 500 families.

Formerly, the lodgings of the labouring classes were dirty, badly ventilated, and, to a dangerous degree, over-crowded, but now a very favourable change has taken place.

In the model lodging-houses, where the rent in general is more moderate than in private houses, very stringent rules as to cleanliness and order are enforced; and the apartments are, almost without exception, well ventilated, cleanly kept, and in some cases comfortably furnished; and the example thus set has, in a greater or less degree, spread a salutary influence on all other lodgings occupied by this class of the population.

The average dimensions of the rooms in the model lodgings are 16 feet by 18, and 11 feet high, allowing thus more than 3,000 cubic feet to each room.

In some industrial establishments, especially those in the country districts, the owners have erected lodging-houses for their work people, for the use of which they pay a moderate rent.

2. *Food.*—The food of the labouring classes in and about Gothenburg, though perhaps sufficient in quantity, is not of so nutritious a quality as could be desired. The bread is almost invariably of rye, baked in thin, hard cakes or biscuits, and the baking is, as a rule, done at home, and in a larger quantity, or about 2 to 4 bushels at a time. Wheaten bread is very seldom used, and then only as a treat. Milk, butter, and cheese are used, but sparingly. Potatoes, gruel or porridge, of oat or barleymeal or grits, with salt herrings, dried pork or bacon, and vegetables, especially cabbages and Swedish turnips, form the principal basis of their daily food. Fresh meat is seldom seen on their tables. In Gothenburg and on the sea-coast a great deal of fresh fish, especially haddocks, codfish, large flounders, and mackerel, are used, when the prices, as frequently happens, are low. Tea is never used, but a great deal of coffee, which seems to be their principle article of luxury. The use of spirituous liquors has, during the last fifteen years, diminished in a sensible degree, and the use of malt liquors has increased.

Under the head of "Moral and Social Condition," this point is further adverted to.

3. *Clothing.*—The clothing of the labouring classes in Sweden, especially in the towns, has undergone a considerable change. Formerly, coarse linen and woollen stuffs were principally used, both by men and women, but cotton is gaining ground more and more. The medical authorities of Sweden have attributed the greater prevalence of chlorosis and anemic diseases to this alteration in the dress.

Since the introduction of cotton, clothing has become cheaper, but at the same time no actual saving has taken place, as the new materials are by no means so lasting a the old ones were.

Sanitary State of Gothenburg.

During the last fifteen years a very complete system of sanitary improvements has been undertaken and carried out in Gothenburg.

A system of underground drainage for superficial water has been executed, the old cesspools are more and more giving way to an improved plan for privies, where the exrements are mixed with lime and deodorizing substances, and converted into valuable artificial manure; marshy and low grounds in the environs of the town have been artificially drained and cultivated, the streets are well paved and kept clean, the lodgings of the labouring classes have, as has already been mentioned, been improved and better ventilated, and new waterworks, estimated to yield a daily supply of 25 gallons per head to a population of 100,000 inhabitants (Gothenburg numbers at present 55,000) are in course of erection, and will be completed this year.

The best evidence of the efficiency of these measures is shown in the fact that the average mortality of Gothenburg, which, from 1850 to 1860, ranged between 27 to 30 per 1,000, has, during the period 1860 to 1870, decreased to 20 to 22 per 1,000.

Moral and Social State.

The same improvement that has been noted under the heads of "Lodgings" of the labouring classes, and "Sanitary State of Gothenburg," may, with even more reason, be adduced as regards their moral and social

condition. The reasons for this improvement may, without contradiction, be attributed to the three following causes: the educational laws of Sweden, the rules for restricting the sale and use of spirituous liquors, and the Act for regulating the employment of children and persons under adult age in factories.

Education in Sweden is compulsory, and, as a necessary consequence thereof, gratuitous. Every child, from the age of 7 years, if not incapacitated by nature, must be sent to school; either to one of the primary gratuitous schools, or to some private school approved by the Educational Board of the parish, and, as a general rule, they are kept at school six or seven years, or till the time that they have acquired a competent knowledge of the catechism, reading, writing, arithmetic, the history and geography of Sweden, and the rudiments of natural history, general history, and geography.

The town of Gothenburg, with a population of 55,000, maintains 120 primary schools, where 4,500 children receive gratuitous instruction, at a cost to the town of about 1*l.* 6*s.* per annum for each child.

Besides these primary schools, there are higher grammar, technical, and industrial schools, so that the intellectual wants of the population may be considered amply provided for.

Formerly, drunkenness was one of the besetting vices of Sweden, but a favourable alteration has taken place. The reasons are, firstly, that Swedish brandies have become much dearer since an excise is levied on the produce, certainly not very high, 70 öre per kanna (about 1*s.* 4*d.* per gallon); and, secondly, that the sale of brandy has been considerably restricted, partly by a tax on the retail trade, and the licensing of brandy shops for consumption on the premises, and partly by a Permissive Bill, by which a parish or town can either entirely prohibit the licensing of brandy shops in its environs, or restrict the number of these places.

The revenue accruing from the retail sale of brandy and the licences of brandy shops is divided between the parish and the county, the parish retaining three-fifths of the tax, and the remaining two-fifths are paid to the county and employed in aid of the county rate.

In Gothenburg, a society, which has been formed exclusively for the purpose of promoting sobriety

among the labouring classes, has farmed the licence of keeping brandy shops in Gothenburg and its suburbs. With a view of attaining this end it has greatly restricted the number of these places, and converted them into respectable eating-houses, where brandy, wine, and malt liquors are also sold. Strict rules for promoting sobriety and order are kept up, no brandy is sold on credit, and no person is allowed to drink till he gets intoxicated, and, further, no brandy is sold to persons under adult age. All the profits arising from these shops are handed over to the Municipal authorities, and go towards diminishing the Municipal taxation. The profits during the last year exceeded 10,000*l.*

By a law published in 1846, the employment of children in factories has been regulated, and it is enacted that no child under the age of 12 years can either be bound apprentice to any trade or be employed in a factory, and that no person under the age of 18 years can be employed in night work. Besides this, all owners of factories who employ children between 12 and 15 years old, are compelled either to allow them a given number of hours every week for attending school, or to keep a separate school for such children.

Purchasing Power of Labour in Gothenburg.

Though wages in Sweden in general do not range high, still they are higher in Gothenburg than in other parts of the country, and will suffice to maintain a man, not encumbered with too large a family, if he is sober and industrious.

The average wages of a common labourer in Gothenburg may be stated at 2*s.* per day.

Prices of provisions vary considerably, but the following rates of the principal articles of food used by the working classes may be considered as averages:—

		English Equivalents.
	R. öre.	
Rye meal .. .. .. per lb.	0 6	$\frac{3}{4}d.$
Oatmeal or grits .. .. „	0 7	$1d.$
Milk .. .. per kanna	0 32	$7d.$ to $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ per gallon.
Cheese, inferior quality from skimmed milk .. .. per lb.	0 25	$3\frac{1}{2}d.$
Pork and bacon .. .. „	0 32	$4\frac{1}{2}d.$
Fresh meat, beef or mutton .. „	0 25	$3\frac{1}{2}d.$
Potatoes .. .. per barrel	5 0	$45s.$ per ton.
Salt herrings, per barrel of 450 to 500 herrings	22 0	$24s.$ $6d.$

The average wages of a common labourer, estimated at $2l.$ $10s.$ per month, will enable him to keep himself, wife, and two or three children in a decent way.

Of these $2l.$ $10s.$, $10s.$ per month goes for house rent, $1l.$ $10s.$ per month for provisions, leaving $10s.$ for clothes and incidental expenses.

Examples are not uncommon in Gothenburg of labouring men, who, by dint of industry and sobriety, have raised themselves to a comfortable position, and brought up their families in a creditable manner; but, as a general rule, the credit in these cases is due to the wife, on whose thrift and economical habits the comfort of the family mainly depends.

(Signed) C. F. ENGSTRÖM.

Gothenburg, November 4, 1870.

SWITZERLAND.

Report by Mr. Gould on the Condition of the Working Classes in the Swiss Confederation, compared with that of the same Classes in England.

THE position of the working man in the Swiss Confederation, so fully and ably described in the Report recently furnished by this Mission, differs in most respects from that of his co-labourer in England. His political and social status, his education, habits, and wants, the resources at his disposal, and the duties incumbent on him, bear one and all a marked contrast with those of his English fellow-workman. Among the various causes which have most effectually contributed to bring about this result, one in general so favourable to him, must be specially noticed—the political institutions of the country, a short sketch of which may, therefore, not be altogether out of place in the present Report.

The Swiss Confederation, numbering a little over 2,500,000 of inhabitants, comprises no less than three separate nationalities—the German, French, and Italian, —and is, moreover, split up into twenty-five semi-independent Cantons or States, leagued together by the exigencies of their common political existence. Each of these small States has for ages retained its peculiar form of Republican Government, its dialect, its time-honoured traditions, and its distinct laws and usages. They are in their turn sub-divided into administrative districts (préfectures) and political communities (communes). The administration of the latter is left entirely in the hands of the inhabitants, by whom the local authorities are elected. The great majority of these communes possess not only special funds set apart for the maintenance of the clergy, the schools, and the poor, but likewise a considerable amount of land, which constitute the common property of the individual members of these small communities, or more accurately speaking of such of them as have the right of local citizenship. The

acquisition of the privileges conferred by this right is subject to various conditions, among others to a money payment, amounting in a few exceptional cases to a large sum. It is a birthright, and does not result from the actual possession of real estate. While the local expenditure is covered by a tax on the estimated value of the real and personal property held by each inhabitant within the limits of the commune, the citizens are equally entitled to share all the direct benefits to be obtained from the communal property, such, for instance, as the supply of fuel and pasturage for cattle. With regard to the denizens of towns, the latter privilege is sometimes commuted into the annual payment of a small sum of money, varying according to circumstances and the relative wealth of the community. The estimated value of the property held by the Swiss communes between the years 1863 and 1864, independently of the Cantons, may be put down at the large sum of 586,853,077 francs, or 23,474,123*l.*; but the returns being unfortunately incomplete, this calculation is, of course, only approximate. Taking the population according to the census of 1860 at 2,510,494, this would give exactly 233 francs 76 centimes, or 9*l.* 7*s.* per head, and as the excess of revenue over expenditure for that year averaged 1 franc 11 centimes, or 11*d.* per head, there is every reason to presume that the above amount has been considerably increased since that date. On the same computation their total revenue then amounted to 46,343,719 francs, or 1,853,748*l.* Of this sum but 10,822,739 francs, or 432,909*l.*, were raised by direct taxation, the remainder being made up from interest on capital and different other sources. That the members of these small self-governed, and in a great measure self-supporting, communities, should be keenly alive to the necessity of promoting that general well-being, in which all have an almost equal stake, is but what would be expected from so practical and industrious a people as the Swiss.

In no other country is property so equally divided among the mass of the people. For instance, in the Canton of Berne, which has about 500,000 inhabitants at the present time, the real property holders numbered, in 1868, no less than 88,670. There were besides 22,856 individuals paying taxes on an average capital of 10,680 francs (427*l.* 4*s.*), and 24,301 on incomes averaging 739

francs 60 centimes (31*l.* 11*s.* 8½*d.*) Taking the number of individuals in a family to be $4\frac{7}{10}$, which is the calculation generally accepted in Switzerland, it would thus appear that nearly five-sixths of the whole population of this canton either hold or have a direct interest in real property alone, and there is no reason to suppose that, as regards the rest of the country, the same relative proportions would not be found to exist. The above calculation may, however, prove, not to be altogether correct, as the number of those who may own property in more than one commune is not given in the Returns; but it is probably so limited as scarcely to affect the general result.

In a like manner the Swiss are all on a footing of almost perfect equality, both politically and socially. Every male adult is entitled to a direct vote at most of the local and all the Cantonal and Federal elections unless disqualified on the ground of a conviction entailing the forfeiture of his civil rights or of his being of infirm mind. The age at which they become electors is 20 for the Federal, and varies from 20 to 23 for the Cantonal elections.

All the authorities, with the exception of those of a purely administrative character, are elected either by the different representative assemblies or by the electors themselves. Their terms of office are of the shortest, when they can generally present themselves for re-election. It is worthy of remark that, notwithstanding this system, there are comparatively few changes among those in power. The principle of appealing on every possible occasion to the popular vote, which seems to be daily gaining ground, has been carried so far in the Canton of Zurich, amongst others, that even the parish clergymen are selected in the same manner. Strange to say, the result is stated to have been hitherto most satisfactory as regards the choice made by the people.

Both the authorities and the members of the Cantonal and Federal assemblies are compensated for their services either by an annual salary or by a fixed allowance for every day's attendance. These are, however, miserably small, even for a country as cheap as Switzerland, where moreover the style of living is of the plainest amongst all classes alike, with the single exception of the President of the Confederation, who receives 10,000 francs (400*l.*) during the year he is in office. They range from 8,000

francs (320*l.*) a-year down to 14 francs (11*s.* 2½*d.*), the total amount paid to some of the Communal Councillors.

If the amount of the salaries be small, the number of them is proportionately, and the ultimate cost of the Civil Administration from first to last not far below that of other countries. Elsewhere, such a system would inevitably lead to peculation; here, owing to a variety of causes, this is not the case, but the majority of officials have to depend, to a great extent, on their private means or other sources of income. Some, however, do manage to support themselves and their families on their official incomes, but in a manner which would not be feasible out of Switzerland. The redeeming features of the above-described system are, that, by reducing the emoluments of office to a minimum, amounting, in point of fact, to little more than a public recognition of the duties to be performed, it tends, in theory, at least, to exclude from the service of the State all who are not actuated by the purest motives, and in practice admits of the greatest possible number co-operating in the actual administration.

As the affairs of the Confederation are carried on by a Federal Executive, elected by the National Congress, which is composed of the delegates of the Cantons and the direct representatives of the people, in the proportion of one for every 20,000 of the population, so are those of the Cantons by their respective Governments and Legislatures. However, in the Cantons of Zurich, Thurgovie, and some of the smallest, the Governments are named directly by the people themselves, who assume the legislative functions and are convoked for that purpose once a-year, generally in the month of May. In others, again, measures of more than ordinary importance after being discussed and approved of by the legislators, are referred for final decision to the body of electors. The communes are also, for the most part, on much the same plan.

Thus the number of governing and representative bodies are almost indefinitely multiplied, and decentralization is pushed to its extreme limits. A political organization so complex as this naturally gives rise to the ever recurring necessity of holding elections of one kind or another which take up much valuable time, and keep the people in a constant state of agitation.

Military service is by law obligatory on all Swiss citizens between the ages of 20 and 44, with the exception of clergymen, teachers, and post, telegraph, and railway officials, yet the Federal Constitution only requires the Cantons to furnish a contingent of men between the ages of 20 and 32 for what is called the Active Army at the rate of 3 per cent. of their populations, and half that number of the age of 32 to 40 for the Reserve, all other men capable of bearing arms who are not enrolled in either of the two above-named forces, or who have not attained their 45th year being considered to belong to the Landwehr. This ought to give for the Regular Army and Reserve 112,500 men, but there are actually 136,514; while the Landwehr, which ought to be very numerous, musters only 66,539, the total strength on paper of the army being at present 203,053. It is calculated that 56 per cent. of the male population between the prescribed ages are exempted for some cause or other. Such as are legally exempted are nevertheless liable to a special tax, which is payable to the Cantons, and in 1868 produced 1,022,000 francs (40,880*l.*). When the men first join they have to undergo a preliminary drill of from 4 to 7 weeks' duration. As long as they serve in the army and the Reserve, they are trained every year, or nearly so, for a certain number of days, varying according to circumstances. The period of drill for the Reserve is shorter than for the army, and the Landwehr are not even mustered regularly once every year. They are, however, liable at all times to be called out for active duty if required. They have besides to provide themselves with their kit at their own expense, the cost of which is variously estimated at from 37 to 41 francs, or 1*l.* 9*s.* 7*d.* to 1*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.* It is calculated that in this way the soldiers contribute 750,000 francs (30,000*l.*) a-year towards defraying the expenses of the War Department. Should they not be in a position to find the required amount, it is made up by deductions from their pay, and in exceptional cases by their respective communes. This in itself constitutes a heavy tax, especially on the poorer classes of the population. It, however, in reality, represents but a small fraction of the pecuniary sacrifices imposed on the citizens individually by this peculiar military organization, since the pay of the private soldier, exclusive of rations, only amounts to 50

centimes or 5*d.* per day, while the average earnings of the working classes cannot be reckoned at less than between three and four times that sum. So severe is the pressure caused by this measure that some of the wealthier communes grant additional pay from their own resources to such of their members as have to serve. The other classes, from whose ranks the officers are principally drawn, are naturally better able to meet whatever expenses they may be called upon to incur; but, on the other hand, a greater demand is made on their time. The inconvenience, embarrassment, and actual loss occasioned, even in times of profound peace, to the country at large by the enforced absence, for uncertain though short periods, of considerable bodies of men from their usual occupations, are far greater than would appear at first sight. It not unfrequently happens in manufactories and other commercial and industrial establishments, that the majority of the most indispensable hands have to be called away at the very same moment, in spite of whatever precautions the War Department may take to guard against such an occurrence. This is in itself a most serious objection to the system and can hardly be avoided, as both from economical and administrative motives it is essential that the men of one locality should, as far as practicable, be made to serve in the same corps. Whether its cheapness, more apparent than real, when compared to the degree of efficiency actually obtained, and the relatively formidable numbers it admits of being mustered for the defence of the country on an emergency, greatly outweigh the constant interruptions it causes in every branch of trade, commerce, and agriculture, and the hardships it inflicts on individuals, are questions beyond the scope of the present Report.

Before dismissing the subject of the political organization of this model Republic, there is yet another peculiarity which requires to be especially noticed; for to it may in a great measure be attributed the remarkable degree of prosperity the country has attained, notwithstanding the evident and manifold disadvantages of its geographical position, being a poor and mountainous region in the very centre of the continent. The Swiss Confederation is virtually, as regards its internal polity, more an aggregate of small communities than a Con-

federacy of separate States, for the action of the Cantons on the Communes, and that of the Confederation of the Cantons are limited to those attributions which from their very nature must be delegated to the superior power, and are evidently beyond the competency of the smaller political units. The Communes, for instance, retain in their own hands all the power compatible with the maintenance of general order in the Canton, and with the safety of the State. They raise and assess their own taxes, carry on their own internal police, provide for their spiritual wants, support their own paupers, maintain to a great extent their primary schools, and keep in repair the local roads.

With that practical genius of which such striking illustrations are given by the Swiss people in the management both of their private and public affairs, they have long since arrived at the conviction that the education of the masses is the only sound basis of a State with free institutions, and the most effective lever to raise the moral as well as material condition of a nation. The task of putting this measure in practice devolves chiefly on the communes; but so general is the interest taken in this subject, that the poorest among them do not attempt to evade the heavy burdens it imposes on their resources. So far from this being the case, the tendency of late has been to increase the already large outlay, with the object of still further improving the existing system,—a circumstance all the more remarkable, when it is considered that, although measures of this nature may be due to the initiative of the legislatures, their final acceptance rests entirely with the body of the people. The foregoing fact may surely be accepted as affording in itself one of the best possible tests of the efficacy of popular education.

To this one purpose Switzerland devoted, in the year 1864, close upon 11,000,000 francs (440,000*l.*), or upwards of 13¼ per cent. of her total revenue from all sources. Of the above amount, about 6,000,000 francs (240,000*l.*) fell to the share of the Communes, 4,500,000 francs (180,000*l.*) to that of the Cantons, and the remaining 500,000 francs (20,000*l.*) to the Confederation. It is stated, on reliable authority, that the whole amount spent on education by private individuals, as well as out of the public funds, reaches the comparatively large sum

of 15,000,000 to 20,000,000 francs, or 600,000*l.* to 800,000*l.* a-year.

The primary schools are almost exclusively supported by the Communes; but they are subsidized by the Cantons, which exercise a general supervision over them, and maintain at the same time most of the so-called secondary schools, and all the other public educational establishments of a higher class, with the single exception of the Polytechnic School, the cost of which is borne by the Confederation.

In the preceding Report on the condition of the industrial classes in this country, the subject of national education has been so thoroughly exhausted that but little remains to be said. The system with regard to attendance at the primary schools is by law compulsory, in all the Cantons but that of Geneva, on the part of children within the prescribed ages; and non-attendance is punished by fines imposed on the parents, and in extreme cases by their imprisonment, or by their being condemned to short terms of forced labour. A single fact will fully prove how very rarely severity has to be resorted to for such a purpose. Among the school children of the Canton of Geneva, where public instruction is gratuitous, but not obligatory, the average number per child of days' absence from school (including sickness and all other causes) did not reach 5 per cent. in 1866; the number of school days in this Canton being 246. It is also worth recording that, out of a population of 82,876, there were 7,401 children attending the different public schools; but in the Canton of Berne, for instance, where the compulsory system is in vigour, the proportion of school children and students to the population is nearly twice as high, though a small yearly fee of 1 franc, or 11*d.*, is exacted from every child attending the primary schools, whose parents are not in absolute poverty. They reached, in 1868, the large total of 98,132, of whom 89,981 were in 1,559 primary schools, with 1,540 teachers of both sexes, and 3,464 in 37 secondary schools, 5 "progymnasiums," 2 cantonal colleges, and 1 university, besides 4,687 in 107 private institutions. Except in some of the poorest parts of the country, the proportions are about the same; and it may safely be assumed, that between a fifth and a sixth of the entire population is at all times receiving instruction in the national schools. The returns are, however,

so complicated and incomplete, that on this point, as on most others, it is very difficult to arrive at any general and perfectly accurate calculations.

As a rule children are obliged to attend school from the age of 6 or 7 up to 15 or 16. After they have attained a certain age the hours of study are gradually reduced, in order that they may begin to assist their families, and earn a livelihood. Minute precautions are, nevertheless, adopted by the Legislatures to insure their not being overworked by their employers, who are bound to afford them every facility to attend school at the regular hours, and likewise to grant them the necessary time to prepare their lessons. The enactments on this head are far more stringent in some Cantons than in others. In several, children cannot be employed in factories until they are 13, 15, and even 16, when the longest course of studies prescribed in any one Canton has been completed. Moreover, after being released from compulsory attendance at the primary schools, every possible facility is given to those who may be willing to perfect their education, or to acquire any special branch of knowledge likely to prove useful in their particular sphere of life. For the furtherance of this object there are scattered over the country an almost incredible number of institutions, known under a variety of designations, where instruction is imparted at what is scarcely more than a mere nominal charge on every subject which can either directly or indirectly tend to the practical advantage of the people. Most of these institutions, generally created to meet some local want, are mainly supported by special funds derived from legacies as well as by private contributions; but the Cantonal Government at the same time liberally subscribe to many of them. Such as are exclusively destined for the benefit of the working classes are organized so as to be opened only when they can attend without inconvenience to themselves. In the Canton of Zurich the authorities carry their solicitude for these classes even to the extent of compelling employers to allow apprentices and young workmen to attend the industrial schools during working hours without subjecting them to any corresponding reduction in the amount of their wages for loss of time. To sum up, no means, however expensive, that experience and ingenuity can

devise for the intellectual and theoretical development of the people are left untried.

One of the many advantages possessed by the Swiss working man over his fellow-competitors in other lands, especially in England, is that, owing to the education he has received, he is able to find in a variety of rational pastimes that necessary relaxation from work which the others are unfortunately but too often reduced to seek in vacant indolence or low debauchery. To provide him, therefore, with the means of spending his leisure hours at least pleasantly, if not usefully, and thus to save him, as far as possible, from falling into vicious habits, is the self-imposed task of numerous societies, not a few of which are founded by workmen themselves. Under their auspices local circulating libraries have been formed in many parts of the country, even in some of the most secluded rural communes, the works of which they are composed being carefully selected in order that they may suite the taste and position of those for whom they are more particularly intended. In 1866 the Canton of Geneva already possessed forty-three of these libraries, with 39,000 volumes, and that of Lucerne forty-one. The number in the remaining Cantons has not yet been ascertained. There are, moreover, numerous other public libraries, containing works of a much higher class, as well as museums in all the principal towns. Almanacs, reviews, and newspapers are likewise published for the special use of the working classes, and many of the daily papers give out on Sundays an extra sheet with the object of affording them additional reading matter. Lectures on the social and political questions of the day, and other attractive subjects, are frequently given, not only in the great centres of population, but also in the remote communes, where, in the absence of regular lecturers, the village clergyman or schoolmaster, and sometimes even ordinary workmen, undertake this task. There are innumerable working men's associations, which have some regular place of meeting, where books, periodicals, games, and refreshments, are provided for the members, whose time is chiefly engaged in debating, getting up dramatic performances, and acquiring a knowledge of modern languages, book-keeping, drawing, arithmetic, history, &c. Much attention is also devoted to music, both

vocal and instrumental, as a means of innocent recreation, singing being taught in all the primary schools. There is hardly a village which does not possess one or more choral societies, and in many cases a brass band. The rural districts of the Canton of Lucerne may be cited as an example of the general taste for music, the beneficial effects of which cannot be too highly appreciated. In this little strip of territory there are no less than sixteen principal choral societies, seventeen musical societies, thirteen theatrical societies, and twenty-five brass bands. Lenzberg, a town of 2,000 inhabitants, could already, some years back, boast of possessing 200 pianos. In obscure villages, dramatic performances are sometimes given by the peasants themselves. In some parts of Switzerland pageants are periodically got up at considerable expense to commemorate some event of extraordinary interest in the local annals. Rifle matches and athletic sports are common throughout the country. All classes without distinction take part in these pastimes. Such being the case, the question naturally arises how it is that the working classes can dispose of so much leisure time. The answer is already at hand. Besides the evenings when their work is generally over, they can here turn to good account the Sundays and holydays (the latter are of course much more numerous in the Catholic Cantons than in the Protestant), instead of being driven, as often happens elsewhere, by the want of rational amusements, to ramble about listlessly, making an occasional halt at a public-house, or to sit at home decorously drunk.

In all other respects the same zeal is shown in providing for the comfort of the working classes and forwarding their material interests, both the authorities and private individuals vying with each other in this good work. There are societies which take charge of orphans, undertake the education of viciously-disposed children, relieve poor parents during working hours of the care of those that are too young to be sent to the regular schools, assist others in procuring the necessary school books where such are not gratuitously provided, and advance the fees required of youths on being apprenticed to a trade. Again, other associations find work for the unemployed, or grant them temporary assistance, facilitate the sale of and advance small

amounts on the articles manufactured by them, provide food and a night's lodging for travelling apprentices and workmen, and, if necessary, help them to reach the nearest town where a similar institution exists. Finally, societies exist whose efforts are directed towards procuring for the necessitous classes cheap and healthy lodgings, food of good quality at reduced prices, the use of baths, facilities for washing, bleaching, and ironing linen, purchasing or lending tools and agricultural implements, enabling them to obtain small loans at reasonable terms, and encouraging as far as they can habits of cleanliness, order, and economy. Employers on their part wisely act on the principle that their own interests are to a very great extent identical with those of their operatives, and, therefore, leave nothing in their power undone which can conduce to the comfort and well-being of the latter. They frequently found and maintain at their expense schools for the factory children; build separate dwellings for the families of their workmen; establish cheap eating and lodging-houses; provide means of recreation; supply medicines and medical attendance; pay wages in advances when required; find, at almost any cost to themselves, constant employment for their men; and, by deducting periodically small sums from their wages and investing them in Mutual Insurance Companies, secure pensions for such as become incapacitated for work.

In the North-Eastern Cantons, where mechanical weaving is exclusively carried on by females, the young workwomen are lodged, fed, and clothed at the expense of the manufacturers, who, therefore, only pay them at the annual rate of 50, 60, 80, and 100 francs (2*l*., 2*l*. 8*s*., 3*l*. 4*s*., and 4*l*.; but, as everything is provided, they are able either to hand over the whole amount of their earnings to their families, or, as usually happens, to allow it to accumulate at interest in the hands of their employers to serve as a dowry on their marriage. Competent authorities affirm that this plan, peculiar to Switzerland, is eminently successful, the most rigid order and decorum prevailing in these establishments, which are superintended by matrons or deaconesses—women enrolled in a Protestant religious order. The greatest care is evinced in the selection of the apprentices, who are first admitted on probation at the age of

14 or 15, and expelled for the slightest misconduct. No constraint is, however, imposed on them during non-working hours, when they are free to dispose of their time which they usually spend in the midst of their families.

The Working Men's Associations are so numerous and varied in their objects that it would be vain to attempt in this Report to do more than allude to them as briefly as possible. Among these the "Consumvereine," which are rapidly increasing in number, and are now to be found in almost every Canton, deserve to be specially noticed on account of the great benefits they have conferred on the working classes. They are Associations formed on the co-operative principle for the purchase of all the necessaries of life, which are retailed to the members at greatly reduced prices. The necessary capital is raised either by the issue of interest-bearing shares of small amount, sometimes as low as 3 francs (or 2*s*. 5*d*.), or by weekly contributions from the members. The profits arising from the transactions which, in the course of the year often represent from thirty to forty times the working capital, are seldom distributed in cash to the shareholders, but are employed either in extending their sphere of usefulness or allowed to accumulate as a reserve fund, or else paid in kind. Some of them are affiliated to savings-banks, either supported by the Cantonal authorities, by private enterprise, or by the combined action of the workmen themselves. The articles they supply to the members at a reduction of 5 to 7 per cent. are coffee, chicory, sugar, spices, chocolate, wine, tobacco, flour, rice, maize, oatmeal, gruel, pastes, butter, grease, cheese, soap, oil, vinegar, lamp oil, petroleum, candles, soda, wax, matches, &c. Many of them have established "economical" kitchens, where meals can be obtained amply sufficient for two persons with ordinary appetites for 40 centimes (4*d*.,) and rations of soup, meat, lard, and vegetables at from 10 to 20 centimes (1*d*. to 2*d*.) each, besides having opened numerous bakers' and butchers' shops on the same co-operative principle. Articles of clothing are likewise obtained at a considerable reduction from tradesmen who enter into special agreements with the Associations. These, however, are as yet very few in number, and the working classes have generally in this respect to supply them-

selves in the ordinary way. The most important of these Associations is the one founded at Zurich in 1851 eight members, with a working capital of 75 francs (3*l.*) In 1865 its transactions amounted to 5,310,856 francs (212,434*l.* 4*s.* 10*d.*), and it owned real property valued at upwards of 24,000*l.*, though not entirely paid for. The shares of another at Horgen have risen in fourteen years from 3 francs (2*s.* 5*d.*), the original amount, to between 90 and 105 francs (3*l.* 14*s.* and 4*l.* 4*s.*) A third at Bâle gives a return of 16 per cent., 70 per cent. of which are reinvested in the name of the shareholders, and the remaining 30 per cent. go to a reserve fund. In times of exceptional dearness the Government itself of the Canton of Appenzel assumes the part of a co-operative society, and purchases at wholesale prices the necessary supplies, which are distributed among the communes, by whom they are retailed at the original cost to the population. Many of the manufactures habitually do this for the benefit of their operatives.

Societies are also formed for the purpose of collecting during the summer months weekly contributions, the amount of which is placed to the credit of each contributor, who, in return, receives at the approach of winter fuel and other necessaries to the full value of his contributions. The society of Bâle numbered, in 1866, 1,756 members, and collected in this way 38,860 francs (1,554*l.* 8*s.*), and, on an average, 22 francs 12 centimes (17*s.* 9*d.*) from each contributor.

The number of "Gegenseitige Hülfsgesellschaften," or Mutual Working Men's Associations is set down at 608, with 97,754 members, and a capital of 7,872,020 francs (314,880*l.* 16*s.*) Their total revenue amounted to 1,529,098 francs (61,163*l.* 18*s.* 5*d.*) and their expenditure to 1,059,418 francs (42,376*l.* 14*s.* 5*d.*), thus leaving a surplus of 18,787*l.* 4*s.* They undertake to provide for widows and orphans, and to afford relief in cases of sickness, infirmity, age, and death.

Operative banks, people's banks, societies of mutual credit, and numerous institutions of a similar character exist in nearly every part of Switzerland where loans may be contracted. Mention is made of 43 of these establishments which, between 1865 and 1867, possessed a share capital of 7,487,259 francs (299,490*l.* 7*s.* 2*d.*), a reserve fund of 882,941 francs (35,317*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.*), and deposits

amounting to 27,251,424 francs (1,090,056*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.*) Five of the above banks had no original share capital, but merely did business with the deposits confided to them. The rate of interest on and amount of loans usually advanced by them, are, unfortunately, not stated.

The position of the savings-banks, of which there were 230 in 1862, offers one of the best criterions of the condition of the working classes of a country, and Switzerland is certainly no exception to the rule in this respect; for a glance at the number of depositors and the amount of deposits leads forcibly to the conclusion,—confirmed, moreover, by other equally strong evidence,—that they have attained a degree of unparalleled prosperity without being by any means a wealthy country. Switzerland is probably the one where actual poverty is least known, and where comparative affluence and ease are most uniformly diffused through every section of the community. The figures speak for themselves. There were in 1862 no fewer than 353,855 depositors in the savings-banks, being at the rate of one depositor to 7·09 inhabitants, and in certain manufacturing districts the proportion was even higher; in the town of Zurich, for instance, it reached 50 per cent. of the whole population. In the ten years from 1852 to 1862 the number of depositors in the savings-banks had all but doubled; for in the former year it only came to 181,172, and, judging from the partial Returns published from time to time, it is still increasing, though probably at a less rapid ratio. The deposits at the same period amounted to 131,542,639 francs (5,261,705*l.* 11*s.* 5*d.*): on an average, 371 francs 84 centimes (14*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*) for each depositor, or 52 francs 39 centimes (2*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.*) for each inhabitant. It is a very sugggestive fact that the deposits have increased in amount even at a more rapid rate than the number of depositors, since in 1852 they were only 60,366,759 francs (2,414,670*l.* 7*s.* 2*d.*), and have, consequently, more than doubled. These savings-banks take charge of sums down to 5 francs (4*s.*), and sometimes even to 1 franc (10*d.*), and those which are specially destined to encourage thrifty habits among children and very young people readily accept the smallest sums imaginable, such as centimes or the fractions of a penny. In the Canton of Glaris, out of fourteen savings-banks, eight belong to the latter class.

As it has been shown, the position in which the Swiss working man finds himself, through the force of circumstances perhaps almost as much as through the action of the political and social institutions of his country, is one probably without a parallel. As the member of a distinct class he may be said not to exist, for in Switzerland he is on a par with all around him, both politically and socially. In the former respect he enjoys the privileges and performs the duties common to all, though on him both may press more severely than on others. If he is ambitious he may aspire to any position of trust and influence which his energy and ability may bring within his reach. He is educated as far as his ordinary requirements demand, and has at his disposal the means of perfecting his education if he only wills it. In the latter respect the daily and intimate contact into which all classes of society are unavoidably brought have long since swept away those social barriers still to be found in most countries. The result, being so eminently satisfactory in a practical point of view, is not without some slight drawbacks. While the working man, be he peasant or operative, or both, as is often the case, retains an uncouth appearance and an awkward and churlish demeanour, the upper classes have lost much of that refinement of appearance, tone, and manners which distinguishes them in less democratic countries. He is also very apt, especially in his dealings with foreigners, to overlook his real interest in his eagerness to assert his independence either by refusing work, except on his own conditions or by neglecting to execute it until it suits his personal convenience. Apart from these trifling blemishes on his character, which are mainly to be attributed to a misconceived view of his position, and, perhaps, with better reason, to the prosperous circumstances in which he finds himself, too much cannot be said in his praise. He is described by those best able to form a correct opinion, as being in general laborious, intelligent, honest, sensible, and above all conscientious in the performance of the task assigned to him. He fully appreciates that the interests of employers are identical with those of the employed, and that Swiss industry can only compete successfully with that of other countries on two essential conditions; moderate profits for the former and low wages for the latter. This

will seem the less strange, for elsewhere, unfortunately, the fallacy is but too common among working men that the interests of their employers are antagonistic to theirs, when it is known how intimate are the relations between masters and men in this country. Where the apprentices and workmen do not actually live with the masters, as is usually the case in small establishments, unless the former are married, the latter, for the most part, spend all their spare time among them in the workshops, mixing with them on terms of perfect familiarity and showing every possible consideration for their individual comfort. These relations are not confined to the workshop, but extend to all the occurrences of every-day life. The frugal habits of all classes also tend to deaden the sting of the privations to which the working man has to submit in consequence of the smallness of his wages. They cannot be considered insufficient, since he not only manages to live on them, but even in many cases to lay by money, as the Returns of the savings-banks conclusively prove. He is seldom entirely dependent on the actual amount of his wages. He not unfrequently resides in his own cottage, cultivates with the assistance of his family the small patch of ground belonging to him, is the possessor of a cow or two or three goats, which at times find pasturage on the communal lands, and can draw from the same sources the supply of wood required for household purposes. With these resources, and the aid afforded by the innumerable philanthropic institutions with which the country abounds, he is better enabled than others to tide over those formidable vicissitudes of fortune, principally resulting from want of labour, to which he, in common with the industrial classes of all countries, is exposed. Nowhere are the products of the soil more evenly balanced with the fruits of industry. When one fails, the other secures the population from the danger of being in want. As the operative tills the land when not employed at his usual avocations, which, in many districts, he is allowed to carry on under his own roof, so the agriculturist in his leisure moments, and particularly during the long winter months, when field labour becomes impossible, adds to his resources by working at some trade. In the Alpine regions his efforts are principally directed to wood carving, and in others to making

the component parts of watches, &c. The women, on their side, are far from idle. Besides attending to the multifarious duties of the household, they find time to make lace, very beautiful of its kind, in certain Cantons, straw-plaiting, &c. Thus by turns the operative is engaged in agriculture and the husbandman in manufactures, and the happy combination of both, here so frequently met with, has tended as much as anything else to make of Switzerland one of the most prosperous countries in Europe. Another equally powerful element of success is to be found in that industry and perseverance that spirit of self-restraint and economy, that practical sound sense, which pervade all the ranks of the community, welded, as it were, into a homogeneous entity by the force of its institutions.

Under the circumstances above described, it is almost superfluous to add, that no opening exists for the employment of foreign workmen in any number, especially English. The supply of skilled labour in every branch of trade is fully equal to the demand, and very possibly exceeds it. Moreover, English artizans would have to compete against the native on such very unequal terms that from the first the attempt would be hopeless. They would neither be satisfied with the small amount of the wages they would be obliged to accept, nor able to conform to the habits of the people, and still less to the diet they would necessarily find themselves reduced to. A certain number of them came over in a body to the country, under peculiarly favourable circumstances, at the time railways were first introduced into it. The result was most unfortunate, both for the contractors who had engaged them and the men themselves. The great majority had to be sent home shortly after their arrival, at the expense, partly of the contractors, and partly of Her Majesty's Government and the members of this Mission, and the remainder soon followed.

The average rate of wages for men, women, and children, taken altogether, may safely be assumed to be from 33 to 40 per cent. lower than in England, and 10 to 15 per cent. lower than in France. This is undoubtedly the case as regards the manufacturing districts in general, notwithstanding the great difference in the rates of wages in various sections of the country. They are, for instance, considerably higher in the French-speaking

cantons than in the rest of Switzerland; but, on the other hand, living is at the same time more expensive there. The cheapness of the necessaries of life, the very limited extent of their wants, and the exceptional resources of which the working classes in Switzerland can generally dispose, more than compensate them for the small amount of their earnings. No general statistics have yet appeared on this important point; but, judging from the partial Returns which have from time to time been published, the opinion of most writers, and personal inquiries, the average rate of wages throughout the country would seem to lie between 1*s.* and 1*s.* 3*d.* per working day; and, taking the men only, between 1*s.* 5*d.* and 1*s.* 7*d.* It is, however, a most difficult point to determine with any approach to accuracy, as there is so wide a margin between the apparent and the true average, owing to the disproportionate number of individuals on the receipt of the smaller sums, compared to those on the receipt of the larger amounts. The rates of wages in several Cantons will be found in the Tables annexed to this Report, and numbered from 1 to 6.

The food of the working classes in Switzerland consists principally of bread of very fair quality, of cheese, potatoes, vegetables, and fruit. They seldom eat meat above once a-week, and even then in very small quantities. In the towns the consumption of meat is much greater than in the country, especially among the single men, who generally take their meals in cheap eating-houses. The total annual consumption of meat throughout the country is stated to be 47 lbs. per head of the population, and it is doubtful whether it is really as much; whilst in England it reaches 68 lbs. per head of the population. The difference would probably be found to be even greater, were it possible to ascertain the amount consumed by the immense number of foreigners who reside in, or travel through Switzerland. They, however, consume large quantities of milk, which is found to be both nutritious and wholesome. All classes alike live very frugally, and confine themselves principally to a vegetable diet; the fare of the middle classes being frequently very much the same as that of the lower. They all drink coffee with milk, at least twice a-day, the proportion of chicory mixed up in the coffee being very large, and not objected to. Breakfast, taken before beginning

work, or at a very early hour, generally consists of coffee with milk, but without sugar, and a large piece of bread. Those who are highly paid, add cheese, butter, or fried potatoes. The whole population, from the highest to the lowest, dine between 11 and 1 P.M. At this meal the working-classes take soup, potatoes, vegetables, and bread, and a bowl of coffee, without either sugar or milk. The last meal is in all respects the same as the first. The above statement is liable to not a few modifications, for both the produce of the soil, the climate, and the habits of the people differ widely in the several Cantons. For instance, more meat is consumed in the Canton of Friburg than in the others, the proportion in 1870 being over 60½ lbs. English per inhabitant; in that of Tessin, "polenta," boiled maize flour, replaces bread to a great extent: in that Canton, and French Switzerland, there is a large and general consumption of wine; whilst in German-speaking Cantons, beer, and sometimes cider, are drunk in large quantities, as well as spirits. The average prices of the principal articles of food in the Canton of Berne, will be found in Table No. 7; and as this Canton alone represents one-fifth of the whole country, and holds a mean position as to prices, these may be fairly considered as valid for the country in general. Table No. 8 is intended specially to show the quality, quantity, and average price of the provisions consumed by an ordinary working man's family. It has been drawn up on information obtained direct from various individuals of the above class, through the kind and able assistance of a journeyman watchmaker. Besides, Tables Nos. 4, 5, and 6, also give the usual cost of board and lodging for single individuals of both sexes in the three Cantons of Appenzel, Geneva, and Berne; the cost in the Cantons of Bâle, Aarau, Zurich, and Glaris having already been stated in the Report on the same question which appeared last year. Finally, Table No. 9 shows the nature and amount of sundry household expenses, including house-rent, which have to be provided for annually by a family belonging to the working class.

The question of clothing is treated in the greatest possible detail in the last five Tables, numbered respectively 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14, the information on which they are based having been obtained directly from the

workpeople themselves. It will be remarked that, although Switzerland is a cold country, and the winter, especially in the higher regions, long and severe, no provision is made against the changes of temperature, which are frequently very trying, owing to their suddenness. The same suit of undyed small-cloth, cut after a very ungainly fashion, is worn all the year round, under a blazing hot sun or with the thermometer standing at 20 to 30 degrees below zero. Gloves are worn by some in winter, and wooden-soled shoes lined with felt by the great majority, particularly when working out of doors. This is the only perceptible change—neither overcoats, cloaks, nor wrappers being ever seen among the peasantry and working class. The best proof of the healthiness of the climate is found in the fact that the average duration of life is but little under that of England, being 42·9 years. The greatest mortality occurs in the spring months, owing to the unsettled state of the weather and rapid variations of the temperature. The most prevalent diseases seem to be small-pox and nervous fever. The vegetable diet adhered to by the Swiss appears to have no ill effects, for as a race they are strong and healthy; the existence of "cretins," or half-witted and dwarfed beings, so numerous among them, being generally attributed to other and purely local causes. It is as well to observe that the foreigners, who for the most part follow a meat diet, thrive to all appearance equally well. Excess in drinking, or taking cold water when in a state of perspiration, have here exactly the same baneful effects they produce in other parts of the world; but there is no beverage in particular which need either be taken or avoided. The natives themselves, that is to say the lower orders, are usually hard drinkers, though cases of drunkenness are not more common than elsewhere on the Continent. No special rules as to "temperance in labour and exposure" can be laid down other than are followed in all mountainous regions where a certain amount of risk is incurred by exposure to the keen mountain air when perspiring. In Switzerland the population is much scattered, and there are but few large towns. The want of healthy lodgings in some of these is admitted, and the evil is being remedied as rapidly as circumstances permit. The majority, however, of the working classes reside in the country in their own

cottages, where their work is sometimes brought to them, and they seldom have to go far to it. Their working day is reckoned at thirteen hours. This gives them nearly three hours per day more occupation than in England, and one more than in France. Their cottages are generally clean and comfortable, but, as in all cold climates, the ventilation is defective, and further the smells from the dung often heaped up close to the very door and the liquid manure are at times most offensive, though they do not appear to produce any bad effects.

As a rule Swiss workmen are competent in their several trades, and take an interest in their work; for, thanks to their superior education, they fully appreciate the pecuniary advantages to their masters and indirectly to themselves to be attained by adhering strictly to this course. A striking instance of the impolicy of acting otherwise has lately happened at St. Imier, in the Bernese Jura, and produced a deep impression. In this district for some years back a great falling off in the quality of the watches manufactured has taken place, owing to the inhabitants finding it much more profitable to increase the productions at the cost of the workmanship than to abide by the old rules of the trade. They prospered beyond all expectation for a considerable time, but finally their watches got such a bad name that they became unsaleable, and the result is a general bankruptcy of nearly all the watch manufacturers of this particular district. Whether there is anywhere a class of artizans whose work can be depended upon as good solely from a sense of honour is a matter impossible to prove, for good reputation in trade is the primary object of every intelligent producer, because its logical sequel is profit, the only real incentive to industry, be it as a means of existence or of accumulating wealth. It will not be paying the Swiss workman too high a compliment to say he is too intelligent to disconnect the two in his mind. The skill and trustworthiness of the Swiss workmen by rendering competition possible in several departments of labour in the face of almost insuperable difficulties has achieved a far greater triumph than they would have done by merely influencing the rate of wages. In other words they have themselves created the occupation which serves to support them.

The Swiss working man, owing to the peculiar political and social institutions of the country, occupies an exceptional position, and disposes of resources denied to his fellow-workmen elsewhere. His wages are very small, but relatively larger than in other countries, if judged by the standard of his wants. The supply of labour is fully adequate to the demand. Under these circumstances, the foreign workman could not compete with him on his own ground, even were there an opening for him, which there is not.

(Signed) G. F. GOULD.

Berne, February 28, 1871.

(No. 1.)—AVERAGE Daily Rate of Wages in the Cotton, Flax, Wool, and Silk Factories of the Canton of St. Gall.

Cotton.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Wadding manufactory—				
Men	3 0	1 60	2 4½	1 3½
Women	1 70	1 0	1 4½	0 9½
Children	1 0	0 70	0 9½	0 6½
Cotton, thread, and knitting yarn manufactory	0 70	0 70	0 6½	0 6½
Spinning mills—				
Men	4 0	1 50	3 2½	1 2½
Women	1 50	1 10	1 2½	0 10½
Children	1 0	0 75	0 9½	0 7
Mechanical spooling and twisting mills	1 50	1 0	1 2½	0 9½
Weaving mills—				
Ordinary hand weaving mills:				
1. Plain stuffs—				
Men	2 50	0 66	2 0	0 6½
Women	1 50	0 60	1 2½	0 5½
Children	0 80	0 20	0 7½	0 1¾
2. Checkered weaving mills—				
Men	2 50	0 90	2 0	0 8½
Women	1 80	0 60	1 5	0 5¾
Children	1 0	0 20	0 9½	0 1¾
3. Figured weaving mills—				
Men	1 85	1 85	1 5¾	1 5¾
Women	1 20	1 20	0 11¼	0 11¼
Children	0 35	0 35	0 3¼	0 3¼
Jacquard loom weaving mills—				
Men	3 0	1 10	2 4½	0 10½
Women	2 0	0 75	1 7	0 7
Children	0 80	0 75	0 7½	0 7
Power-loom weaving mills—				
1. Plain stuffs—				
Men	4 0	1 20	3 2½	0 11½
Women	1 80	1 20	1 5	0 11½
Children	1 25	0 80	1 0	0 7½
2. Checkered stuffs—				
Men	2 50	2 0	2 0	1 7
Women	2 0	1 50	1 7	1 2½
Children	1 0	0 70	0 9½	0 6¼

	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	s. d.	s. d.
Stocking and hosiery weaving mills—				
Men	4 0	2 0	3 2¼	1 7
Women	1 20	0 90	0 11¼	0 8½
Embroidery—				
Hand embroidery.				
Men	2 25	0 50	1 9½	0 4¾
Women	1 0	0 50	0 9½	0 4¾
Children	0 50	0 20	0 4¾	0 1¾
Mechanical embroidery—				
Men	4 0	1 90	3 2¼	1 6
Women	2 0	1 0	1 7	0 9½
Children	1 25	0 60	1 0	0 5¾
Linen manufactories ("Lingerien").	1 50	1 0	1 2¼	0 9½
Linen.				
1. Spinning mills—				
Men	2 70	2 70	2 1¾	2 1¾
Women	1 35	1 35	1 1	1 1
Children	1 0	1 0	0 9½	0 9½
2. Weaving mills—				
Hand weaving.				
Men	2 0	0 80	1 7	0 7¼
Women	2 0	0 50	1 7	0 4¾
Children	1 50	0 50	1 2¼	0 4¾
Mechanical weaving	..	..	..	..
Wool and Half-Wool.				
1. Spinning mills	1 20	1 20	0 11¼	0 11¼
2. Weaving mills—				
a. Hand weaving—				
Men	1 50	1 0	1 2¼	0 9½
Women	1 0	1 0	0 9½	0 9½
b. Mechanical weaving—				
Men	1 50	1 50	1 2¼	1 2¼
Women	1 0	1 0	0 9½	0 9½
Silk.				
Spinning and throwing mills—				
Men	1 20	1 20	0 11¼	0 11¼
Women	1 20	1 0	0 11¼	0 9½
Children	0 70	0 50	0 6½	0 4¾
Weaving mills—				
a. Stuffs—				
Men	2 50	1 0	2 0	0 9½
Women	1 50	0 80	1 2¼	0 7¼
Children	1 10	0 30	0 10½	0 2¾
b. Ribbons	2 50	2 50	2 0	2 0
c. Pocket-handkerchiefs ..	3 0	3 0	2 4¾	2 4¾
d. Half-silks	1 20	1 20	0 11¼	0 11¼
Singeing.				
Men	2 75	1 30	2 2¼	..
Women	1 30	1 15	1 0½	0 11
Bleaching.				
a. Natural bleaching—				
Men	3 0	2 0	2 4¾	1 7
Women	1 50	1 50	1 2¼	1 2¼
b. Artificial bleaching—				
Men	3 0	1 50	2 4¾	1 2¼
Women	1 60	1 0	1 3¼	0 9½

	Maximum.		Minimum.		Maximum.		Minimum.	
	Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Dyeing.								
1. Turkey-red dyeing—								
Men	2	60	1	80	2	1	1	5
Women	1	80	1	40	1	5	1	1½
Children	1	20	1	20	0	11½	0	11½
2. Checkered dyeing—								
a. Dyeing stuffs in the piece ..	2	50	1	80	2	0	1	5
b. Dyeing yarn—								
Men	2	70	1	75	2	1¾	1	4¾
Women	1	50	1	50	1	2¼	1	2¼
Printing.								
Men	2	50	2	0	2	0	1	7
Women	1	30	1	20	1	0½	0	11¼
Children	1	10	0	60	0	10½	0	5¾
Cutting off the superfluous parts of the Figure-weft on the wrong side of Broché Goods.								
By hand	1	60	0	50	1	3½	0	4¾
By machine—								
Men	2	75	2	0	2	2¼	1	7
Women	1	80	0	60	1	5	0	5¾

General Remarks.

	Fr.	c.	s.	d.
Highest amount of wages—				
Men	4	0	3	2¾
Women	2	0	1	7
Children	1	50	1	2¼
Lowest amount of wages—				
Men	0	50	0	4¾
Women	0	50	0	4¾
Children	0	20	0	1¾
General average—				
Men	1	95	1	6¾
Women	1	26	1	0
Children	0	78	0	7½

(No. 2.)—AVERAGE Daily Rate of Wages in various Industrial Establishments in the Canton of St. Gall.

Extraction of Metals and Manufacture of Hardware.

	Maximum.		Minimum.		Maximum.		Minimum.	
	Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1. Mines and smelting works—								
a. Copper and lead mines ..	2	0	2	0	1	7	1	7
b. Iron mines	2	0	2	0	1	7	1	7
c. Forges and smelting furnaces.	2	0	2	0	1	7	1	7
2. Iron works..	4	0	2	20	3	2½	1	8½
3. Foundries—								
a. Grey pig iron—								
Men	3	0	2	20	2	4¾	1	8½
Children	1	0	1	0	0	9¾	0	9¾
b. Soft pig iron	2	60	2	60	2	1	2	1
c. Metal-casting	3	0	2	80	2	4¾	2	2¾
4. Engine factories—								
Men	3	0	2	80	2	4¾	2	2¾
Children	1	50	1	50	1	2¼	1	2¼
5. Machine workshops	4	0	2	0	3	2¼	1	7
6. Arms factories	2	50	2	0	2	0	1	7
7. Cooking utensils and stoves factories..	2	20	2	0	1	8½	1	7
8. Grinding and filing down ..	3	0	1	90	2	4¾	1	6
9. Wire tack and nail factories ..	3	0	1	70	2	4¾	1	4¼
10. Wire mills	2	0	2	0	1	7	1	7

Preparation of Minerals and other Substances for Scientific, Industrial, and Military Purposes.

	Maximum.		Minimum.		Maximum.		Minimum.	
	Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1. Lime kilns—								
Men	3	0	2	0	2	4¾	1	7
Children..	1	0	0	60	0	9½	0	5¾
2. Brick-kilns, potteries, and drain-pipe manufactories—								
Men	2	59	1	50	2	0	1	2½
Children..	1	10	1	0	0	10½	0	9½
3. Powder mills	5	0	5	0	4	0	4	0
4. Glass manufactories	3	0	3	0	2	4¾	2	4¾
5. Gasworks	2	40	2	40	2	11	2	11
6. Colour manufactories . ..	2	0	2	0	1	7	1	7
7. Lucifer-match manufactories ..	..		..		..		..	
8. Chemical laboratories.. ..	3	0	1	50	2	4¾	1	2¼
9. Workshops for the manufacture of surgical and optical instruments	3	50	2	50	2	9½	2	0
10. Water-colour manufactories ..	..		..		..		..	
11. Tool manufactories	3	0	3	0	2	4¾	2	4¾
12. Scythe manufactories.. ..	2	0	2	0	1	7	1	7
13. Thrashing-machine ditto ..	2	0	1	80	1	7	1	5
14. Furniture ditto	3	60	3	60	2	10½	2	10½

Preparation of Vegetable and Animal Substances for Industrial Purposes.

	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	s. d.	s. d.
1. Oil mills	3 0	2 0	2 4¾	1 7
2. Tan mills	3 0	2 0	2 4¾	1 7
3. Saw mills	3 0	2 0	2 4¾	1 7
4. Hemp crushing mills.. ..	1 20	1 20	0 11½	0 11½
5. Frame saw mills and parqueterie manufactories	3 50	2 0	2 9½	1 7
6. Reed makers—				
Men	3 0	2 0	2 4¾	1 7
Women	1 50	1 20	1 2½	0 11½
7. Bone mills	2 50	2 0	2 0	1 7
8. Tanneries	3 0	1 50	2 4¾	1 2½
9. Candle and soap factories ..	3 0	2 0	2 4¾	1 7
10. Brush manufactories	1 70	1 70	1 4½	1 4½
11. Starch ,, ...	2 20	2 0	1 9	1 7
12. Dyed and varnished leather factories	..	..	..	..
13. Oilcloth and waxed paper ditto..	2 0	2 0	1 7	1 7
14. Waxed goods manufactories ..	2 0	2 0	1 7	1 7
15. Straw hat manufactories ..	1 50	1 50	1 2½	1 2½

Printing Establishments, &c.

	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	s. d.	s. d.
Printers, &c.—				
Men	4 0	2 20	3 2¼	1 9
Women	1 0	1 0	0 9½	0 9½
Children	1 0	1 0	0 9½	0 9½
Lithographers—				
Men	4 0	2 50	3 2¼	2 0
Children	1 0	1 0	0 9½	0 9½
Photographers	4 0	2 0	3 2¼	1 7

Paper, Wooden, and Hardware Manufactories.

	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	s. d.	s. d.
1. Paper mills, paper and pasteboard factories—				
Men	3 0	2 50	2 4¾	2 0
Women	1 10	0 80	0 10½	0 7½
2. Maize straw paper factories—				
Men	2 0	2 0	1 7	1 7
Women	1 0	1 0	0 9½	0 9½
3. Carpet and stained paper factories	2 0	2 0	1 7	1 7
4. Playing card factories	2 0	2 0	1 7	1 7
5. Window blind factories. ..	..	..	..	..
6. Bone turning mills	2 50	2 50	2 0	2 0
7. Wood carving factories. ..	3 0	2 0	2 4¾	1 7
8. Gold band manufactories ..	2 50	2 50	2 0	2 0

Articles of Consumption.

	Maximum.		Minimum.		Maximum.		Minimum.	
	Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
1. Corn mills	3	0	2	0	2	4¾	1	7
2. Manufactories of Italian pastes—								
Men	2	50	1	50	2	0	1	2¼
Women	2	0	1	0	1	7	0	9½
Children	1	0	1	0	0	9½	0	9½
3. Chicory manufactories—								
Men	1	70	1	70	1	4¼	1	4¼
Women	0	90	0	90	0	8½	0	8½
Children	0	70	0	70	0	6¼	0	6¼
4. Chocolate manufactories	..		..		..		..	
5. Mustard manufactories	2	0	2	0	1	7	1	7
6. Breweries	4	0	1	80	3	2¼	1	5
7. Distilleries	3	0	2	0	2	4¾	1	7
8. Liqueur distillery	..		..		..		..	
9. Vinegar and pyroligneous acid distillery	..		..		..		..	
10. Tobacco and cigar manufactory—								
Men	4	0	1	75	3	2¼	1	4½
Women	2	0	0	90	1	7	0	8½
Children	0	75	0	75	0	7	0	7
11. Grease manufactory	..		..		..		..	

	Fr.	c.		*s.*	*d.*
General average of men's wages	2	43	=	1	11½
Highest amount ,,	5	0		4	0
Lowest ,,	1	20		0	11½

(No. 3.)—AMOUNT of Daily Wages in the Canton of Valais.

	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
Vine dressers (male)	3 0	2 0	2 4½	1 7
,, ,, (female)	1 80	1 50	1 5	1 2½
Agricultural labourers	2 0	1 20	1 7	0 11½
Day ,, ...	2 0	1 0	1 7	0 9½
Men engaged in breaking up ground.	2 50	2 0	2 0	1 7
Mowers	3 50	3 0	2 9½	2 4½
Waggoners (with yoke of oxen) ..	5 0	4 0	4 0	3 2½
Printers	3 0	2 30	2 4½	2 2½
Bookbinders	2 50	2 0	2 0	1 7
Watchmakers	1 80	1 0	1 5	0 9½
Mechanics	2 0	1 0	1 7	0 9½
Tailors.	2 80	2 0	2 2½	1 7
Shoemakers	2 80	1 50	2 2½	1 2½
Saddlers	3 0	1 0	2 4½	0 9½
Locksmiths	3 50	2 0	2 9½	1 7
Smiths.	2 50	1 40	2 0	1 1½
Joiners	3 0	2 0	2 4½	1 7
Tanners	1 80	1 0	1 5	0 9½
Gardeners	3 0	1 80	2 4½	1 6½
Bakers.	1 40	1 10	1 1½	0 10½
Millers	3 0	2 0	2 4½	1 7
Cartwrights	2 10	1 50	1 8	1 2½
Tinkers	3 0	1 80	2 4½	1 5
Gunsmiths	6 0	4 0	4 9½	3 2½
Cooks (men) engaged by the year ..	1 0	..	0 9½	..
,, (women) ,, for 250 days ..	0 40	..	0 3½	..
Sempstresses	1 10	1 0	0 10½	0 9½
Milliners	1 80	1 0	1 5	0 9½
Masons	2 80	1 0	2 2½	0 9½
Washerwomen	1 80	1 80	1 5	..
Head waiters, engaged by the year ..	1 0	1 0	0 9½	..
Waiters ,, ,, ..	1 0	1 0	0 9½	..
Chambermaids ,, ,, ..	1 0	1 0	0 9½	..
Parlourmaids ,, ,, ..	1 0	1 0	0 9½	0 8
Ostlers.	1 0	1 0	0 9½	..
Maidservants	0 50	0 40	0 4½	0 3½
Carpenters	2 80	2 0	2 2½	1 7
Stone cutters	3 0	2 50	2 4½	2 0

	Fr. c.		*s.* *d.*
Average of daily wages	1 90	=	1 6½

(No. 4.)—Canton of Appenzell.

Trades.	Average Rate of Daily Wages.		Amount of Wages per Week of 6 Working Days.		House Rent, per Week.		Living, per Week.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Tinkers	2 30	1 10	13 80	11 0½	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Saddlers	2 10	1 8	12 60	10 0½	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Coopers	1 90	1 6	11 40	9 1½	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Bakers	1 80	1 5	10 80*	8 7½*	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Butchers	2 0	1 7	12 0	9 7	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Joiners	2 0	1 7	12 0	9 7	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Tailors	2 0	1 7	12 0	9 7	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Silk Manufactories—								
Men	3 20	2 6½	19 20	15 4½	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Women	1 60	1 3½	9 60	7 8	1 15	0 11	5 60	4 5½
Ribbon Manufactories—								
Men	3 30	2 7½	19 80	15 10	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Women	1 60	1 3½	9 60	7 8	1 15	0 11	5 60	4 5½
Yarn Manufactories—								
Men	3 20	2 6½	19 20	15 4½	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Women	1 50	1 2½	9 0	7 2½	1 15	0 11	5 60	4 5½
Wool Manufactories—								
Men	3 0	2 4½	18 0	14 4½	1 61	1 3½	7 0	5 7
Women	1 40	1 1½	8 40	6 8½	1 15	0 11	5 60	4 5½

Note.—The above statement is merely approximative as regards board and lodging. Many operatives reside with their employers.

* Employed 7 days per week.

(No. 5.)—Canton of Geneva.

Trades.	Average Rate of Daily Wages.		Amount of Wages per Week of 6 Working Days.		House Rent, per Week.		Living, per Week.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Working jewellers—								
Men	5 50	4 4½	33 0	26 4½	3 45	2 8	14 0	11 2½
Women	3 50	2 9½	21 0	16 9½	3 45	2 8	10 0	8 0
Tinkers	2 50	2 0	15 0	12 0	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Potters	2 30	1 10	13 80	11 0½	3 45	2 8	8 40	6 8½
Saddlers	2 60	1 1	15 60	12 5½	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Coopers	2 70	2 1½	16 20	12 11½	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Bakers	2 0	1 7	14 0*	11 2½*	3 45	2 8	8 40	6 8½
Butchers	3 0	2 4½	18 0	14 4½	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Joiners	2 20	1 9	13 20	10 6½	3 45	2 8	8 40	6 8½
Woodcutters	3 30	2 7½	19 80	15 10	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Journeymen tailors	3 0	2 4½	18 0	14 4½	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Hairdressers and barbers	2 0	1 7	12 0	9 7	3 45	2 8	8 40	6 8½
Locksmiths	1 90	1 6	11 40	9 1½	3 45	2 8	8 40	6 8½
Gilders	3 80	3 0½	22 80	18 2¾	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Watchmakers—								
Men	4 50	3 7	27 0	21 7	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Women	2 50	2 0	15 0	12 0	3 45	2 8	8 5	6 5¼
Bookbinders	2 50	2 0	15 0	12 0	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Gunsmiths	3 0	2 4½	18 0	14 4½	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Cabinetmakers	3 0	2 4½	18 0	14 4½	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Upholsterers	3 60	2 10½	21 60	17 3½	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
House-decorators	2 80	2 3	16 80	13 5½	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Lithographers	3 0	2 4½	18 0	14 4½	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0
Blacksmiths	2 70	2 1½	16 20	12 11½	3 45	2 8	11 25	9 0

Note.—In this Canton the population is exceedingly dense, the taxation high, and living expensive. The above rates of house-rent and living represent the usual, though not invariably the actual, cost of both to single individuals. Married couples live, for instance, at a much cheaper rate.

* Employed 7 days per week.

(No. 6.)—Canton of Berne.

Average Rate of Daily Wages of the Working Classes, with and without Board and Lodging.

Trades.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average Weekly Amount (6 Working Days).	Highest.	Lowest.	Average Weekly Amount (6 Working Days).*	Board and Lodging,	Remarks.
	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.		
Masons	3 0	2 0	15 0	2 4¾	1 7	12 0	Board for a man from 5*s.* 7*d.* to 7*s.* 3½*d.* per week, without wine or beer. Twice a-day, coffee and bread, sometimes butter, cheese, or fried potatoes are given at the same time. Once a-day, soup with vegetables, a ¼ lb. of meat, potatoes, and bread. In the majority of families meat is only eaten once a-week, and frequently but once a-month. Lodgings for single men cost from 1*s.* 2¼*d.* to 4*s.* 9½*d.* per week, according to the number of lodgers and beds in a room, and the situation. Families pay from 2*s.* 3½*d.* up to 6*s.* 2*d.* per week. For the former sum they have but one room and the use of a kitchen in common with other lodgers.	Foremen, from 3 fr. 50 c. to 4 fr. = 2*s.* 9½*d.* to 3*s.* 2¾*d.*
Stonecutters	3 0	2 0	15 0	2 4¾	1 7	12 0		Foremen up to 4 fr. = 3*s.* 2¾*d.*
Carpenters	3 0	2 50	16 50	2 4¾	2 0	13 2¼		Ditto.
Joiners..	3 0	2 0	15 0	2 4¾	1 7	12 0		Also employed by the job on better terms.
Cabinetmakers	4 0	2 0	18 0	3 2¼	1 7	14 4¾		Ditto.
Glaziers	3 0	2 0	15 0	2 4¾	1 7	12 0		
Plasterers	3 50	2 20	17 10	2 9½	1 9	13 8		Also employed by the job on better terms.
House-decorators ..	3 50	2 20	17 10	2 9½	1 9	13 8		Ditto.
Smiths..	3 50	2 0	16 50	2 9½	1 7	13 2¼		
Locksmiths	3 50	2 0	16 50	2 9½	1 7	13 2¼		
Toolsmiths	3 0	2 50	16 50	2 4¾	2 0	13 2¼		Earn more when employed in manufactories.
Mechanics	5 0	2 0	21 0	4 0	1 7	16 9½		
Brassfounders	3 20	2 50	17 10	2 6½	2 0	13 8		
Founders	4 0	2 60	19 80	3 2¼	2 1	15 10		
Tinmen	4 0	2 0	18 0	3 2¼	1 7	14 4¾		
Engravers	6 0	2 0	24 0	4 9½	1 7	19 2¼		
Lithographers	5 50	2 0	22 50	4 4¾	1 7	18 0		
Ditto	4 20	2 0	18 60	3 4½	1 7	14 10½		
Compositors	4 0	2 0	18 0	3 2¼	1 7	14 4¾		

* For the sake of accuracy the figures in this column are the equivalent of the corresponding sums in French currency, and therefore, owing to the numerous fractions, which cannot be reduced from one currency to the other, do not exactly agree with the two preceding columns.

Trades.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average Weekly Amount (6 Working Days).*	Highest.	Lowest.	Average Weekly Amount (6 Working Days).	Board and Lodging.	Remarks.
	F. c.	F. c.	F. c.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.		
Printers	4 0	2 0	18 0	3 2½	1 7	14 4½	As on previous page.	Often earn more by piece-work.
Bookbinders	3 67	1 50	15 50	2 11	1 2½	12 4½		
Goldsmiths	5 0	2 0	21 0	4 0	1 7	16 9½		
Brushmakers	3 0	2 18	15 55	2 4¾	1 8¾	12 5½		
Tailors..	3 33	2 0	16 0	2 8	1 7	12 9½		
Saddlers	5 0	2 0	21 0	4 0	1 7	16 9½		
Potters..	5 0	2 0	21 0	4 0	1 7	16 9½		
Cartwrights	3 0	2 0	15 0	2 4¾	1 7	12 0		
Photographers, operators ..	7 75	6 80	43 65	6 2¼	5 5½	34 11		
Ditto, assistants	2 90	2 32	15 65	2 3¾	1 10	12 6		
Working watchmakers ..	1 66	0 66	6 96	1 4	0 6½	5 7	With board and lodging ..	But provide their own tools, a complete set of which cost from 20*l.* to 24*l.* Paid by the week.
Coopers	1 16	0 66	5 97	0 11	0 6½	4 9½	Ditto	Paid by the week.
Brewers	5 0	1 66	19 98	4 0	1 4	15 11¾	Ditto	Ditto.
Shoemakers	2 0	0 33	7 0	1 7	0 3¼	5 7¼	Ditto	Engaged frequently by piece-work.
Gardeners	1 93	1 16	9 27	1 6½	0 11	7 5	Ditto	Engaged by the month.
Barbers	1 16	0 62	5 35	0 11	0 6	4 3½	Ditto	Ditto.
Turners	1 16	0 50	4 98	0 11	0 4¾	3 11¾	Ditto	Engaged by the week.
Porters..	2 0	2 0	12 0	1 7	1 7	9 7		
Office porters	2 20	2 0	12 60	1 9	1 7	10 1		
Bakers..	1 33	0 66	5 97	1 0¾	0 6½	4 9¼	Ditto	Engaged by the week. Work also on Sunday.
Butchers	1 66	0 83	7 47	1 4	0 8¼	5 11¾	Ditto	Ditto.
Farm servants per week	5 0	3 0	4 0	4 0	2 4¾	3 2¼	Ditto	By the month.
Women servants, per month	25 0	8 0	16 50	20 0	6 4¾	13 2¼	Ditto	Ditto.

* See Note on previous page.

(No. 7.)—TABLE showing the Average Prices of Provisions and Fuel in the Canton of Berne.

		Fr.	c.	£	s.	d.
Bread, rye mixed with wheat	Per Swiss lb. = 1·103	0	20	0	0	2
Beef, 1st quality	" "	0	63	0	0	6
" 2nd quality	" "	0	58	0	0	5½
Veal	" "	0	64	0	0	6
Pork	" "	0	95	0	0	9
Potatoes	" "	0	3	0	0	0½
Butter	" "	1	0	0	0	9½
Suet	" "	0	91	0	0	8½
Lard	" "	0	89	0	0	8½
Pine wood	Per "klafter"	29	0	1	3	2½
Beech	"	46	0	1	9	9½
Turf	Per waggon load	25	0	1	0	0

Fruit and vegetables very cheap, but the price fluctuates according to circumstances.

(No. 8.)—TABLE showing the Quality, Quantity, and and Average Price of Provisions consumed per Annum by an ordinary Day-Labourer's Family at Berne, consisting of 8 persons—2 adults and 6 children.

	Per week.				Per annum.				
	Fr.	c.	s.	d.	Fr.	c.	£	s.	d.
Bread, 8·823 lbs. English per day, at 20 centimes = 1¾ per lb.	11	20	8	11½	584	0	23	7	2¼
Milk, 4⅜ imperial pints per day, at 24 centimes per "mass," or 1*d.* per imperial pint	3	36	2	8	175	20	7	0	1¾
Coffee, 1·103 lbs. English per week, at 1 franc per Swiss lb., or 8½ per English lb.	1	0	0	9¾	52	0	2	1	7¼
Coffee made of chicory ("sparkaffee"), a small packet per week, at 10 centimes = 1*d.*	0	10	0	1	5	20	0	4	1½
Coffee, essence of	0	15	0	1½	7	80	0	6	2¾
Flour, 1·103 lbs. English per week, at 25 centimes per Swiss lb., or 2½*d.* per English lb.	0	25	0	2½	13	0	0	10	4¾
Meat, 1·103 lbs. English (about once a month) of lean bacon, at 90 centimes per Swiss lb., or 7¾*d.* per lb. English	0	20	0	2	10	80	0	8	7½
Potatoes, 10½ imperial quarters per month, at 6¼*d.* per quarter	1	61	1	3½	84	0	3	7	2¼
Cabbage, made into sourcrout, per year 2 "vierligs," at 25 heads each, or 18 centimes = 1¾*d.* per cabbage when pickled	0	17	0	1¾	9	0	0	7	2¼
Lard, used for cooking purposes instead of butter, 1·103 lbs. English per week, at 8½ per lb. English	1	0	0	9½	52	0	2	1	7
Pig's grease, ditto, ditto	1	0	0	9½	52	0	2	1	7
Salt, 1·654 lbs. English per week, at 9 centimes = ¾*d.* per lb. English	0	15	0	1½	7	80	0	6	3
Fruit or vegetables, according to season	0	50	0	4¾	26	0	1	0	9½
Total	20	69	16	6¾	1,078	80	43	3	0½

Note.—In dealing with such small sums, which have to be changed from one currency into the other, slight discrepancies are inevitable. The daily expenditure averages about 2 francs 95 centimes = 2*s.* 4¼*d.*

(No. 9.)—TABLE showing the Amount disbursed by the same Family for House-rent, Fuel, Taxes, and various other necessary Household Expenses in the course of the Year.

	Fr.	c.	£	s.	d.
Rent per annum for one large room for the whole family, and part use of a kitchen	150	0	6	0	0
Fuel for cooking purposes—a bundle of beech wood per day, at 25 centimes = 2½d.	91	25	3	13	0
Fuel to warm the room in winter—One large cart-load of turf at 25 francs = 1l.	25	0	1	0	0
Lighting during the winter months the room, and occasionally the kitchen, a pint of oil per week at 50 centimes = 4¼d.	13	0	0	10	4¾
Municipal gas rates	2	0	0	1	7
Blacking for boots and shoes, one small box, per month at 20 centimes = 2d.	12	40	0	1	11½
Lucifer matches, one box per month at 15 centimes = 1½d.	1	80	0	1	5½
School books and slates, &c., for the children attending school, per annum, 20 francs = 16s.	20	0	0	16	5½
Breakage—thread, needles, &c., per annum, 15 francs = 12s.	15	0	0	12	0
Soap, washing done at home, 1 Swiss lb. = 1·103 English, at 45 centimes, 4½d. per week	23	40	0	18	9
Pig's grease for boots and shoes, 1,133 lbs. English, per month at 1 franc = 9½d.	12	0	0	9	7¼
Total	355	85	14	4	8½

(No. 10.)—TABLE showing the Cost and Quality of the Clothes worn by an ordinary Working Man.

	Fr.	c.	£	s.	d.
Coat made of small cloth undyed, texture cotton warp and woollen wept, breadth usually an ell = about 24 inches, 7 ells = 4⅜ yards, at 3 francs = 2*s.* 4¾*d.* per yard, making it up costs from 14 francs to 16 francs = 11*s.* 2½*d.* to 12*s.* 9½*d.*	30	0	1	4	0
Waistcoat of the same, 1 ell at 2 francs = 1*s.* 7*d.*; make and accessories, 5 francs = 4*s.*	7	0	0	5	7
Trowsers of the same, 5 ells = 3⅓ yards, at 3 francs = 2*s.* 4¾*d.* per yard; make and accessories, 4 francs to 4 francs 50 centimes = 3*s.* 2½*d.* to 3*s.* 7½*d.*	14	50	0	11	7
Shirt of coarse cotton calico, 5½ ells = 3⅔ yards, at 75 centimes = 7½*d.* per yard; make, 1 franc 50 centimes = 1*s.* 2½*d.* ..	4	25	0	3	4¾
Stockings, 1 pair cotton, at 1 franc 80 centimes to 2 francs = 1*s.* 5½*d.* to 1*s.* 7*d.* the pair	2	0	0	1	7
Stockings, 1 pair woollen, at 4 to 5 francs = 3*s.* 2½*d.* to 4*s.* the pair	5	0	0	4	0
Boots, 1 pair half boots, at 10 francs to 11 francs = 8*s.* to 8*s.* 9½*d.* the pair	11	0	0	8	9½
Shoes, 1 pair with wooden soles (for winter wear they are lined with felt), at 4 francs = 3*s.* 2½*d.* the pair	4	0	0	3	2½
Necktie, at 1 franc to 1 franc 50 centimes = 9½*d.* to 1*s.* 2½*d.*	1	50	0	1	2½
Felt hat, at 6 francs to 8 francs = 4*s.* 9½*d.* to 6*s.* 4¾*d.*	8	0	0	6	4¾
Braces, 1 pair, at 1 franc 50 centimes = 1*s.* 2½*d.*	1	50	0	1	2½
Trowsers for summer wear, of drill, bought ready made, at 6 francs to 7 francs = 4*s.* 9½*d.* to 5*s.* 7½*d.*	7	0	0	5	7½
Under-waistcoat, of fustian, 2½ yards, at 90 centimes to 1 franc 5 centimes = 8½*d.* to 10*d.* per yard; make, 1 franc = 9½*d.* ..	3	45	0	2	8½
Pocket-handkerchief, printed, at 60 centimes to 80 centimes = 5¾*d.* to 7¾*d.*	0	80	0	0	7¾
Jacket, woollen-knitted, at 8 francs to 9 francs = 6*s.* 4¾*d.* to 7*s.* 2½*d.*	9	0	0	7	2¼
Total	108	95	4	7	1¾

(No. 11.)—TABLE showing the Annual Average Expenditure for Clothing of an ordinary Working Man.

	Fr.	c.	£	s.	d.
Coat, price 30 francs = 24*s.*, usually lasts three years	10	0	0	8	0
Waistcoat, price 7 francs, usually lasts one year	7	0	0	5	7
Trowsers, price 14 francs to 50 francs	14	50	0	11	7
Shirt, price 4 francs to 25 francs, two required every year	8	50	0	6	9½
Stockings, cotton, price 2 francs, usually last one year	2	0	0	1	7
Stockings, woollen, price 5 francs, usually last one year	5	0	0	4	0
Boots, price 11 francs, usually last one year; require being twice re-soled; extra expense, 7 francs	18	0	0	14	4¾
Shoes, price 4 francs, usually last one year; require being re-soled 4 times; extra expense, 3 francs 40 centimes	7	40	0	5	11
Neck ties, price 1 franc 50 centimes, usually lasts one year	1	50	0	1	2¼
Felt hat, price 8 francs, usually lasts three years	2	66	0	2	1½
Braces, price 1 franc 50 centimes, usually last one year	1	50	0	1	2¼
Trowsers, summer, price 7 francs, usually last one year	7	0	0	5	7
Under-waistcoat, price 3 francs 45 centimes, usually lasts two years	1	72	0	1	4½
Pocket handkerchief, price 80 centimes, two required every year	1	60	0	1	3¼
Jacket, price 9 francs, usually lasts two years	4	50	0	3	7½
Total	92	88	3	14	3½

The lowest computation of the annual cost of clothing for a working man in this canton is 71 francs 60 centimes = 2*l.* 17*s.* 3½*d.*, provided he does not wear second-hand clothes.

(No. 12.)—TABLE showing the Cost and Quality of the Clothes worn by a Woman of the Working Class.

	Fr.	c.	£	s.	d.
Dress, cotton warp linen, 11⅛ yards, at 3 francs = 2*s.* 4¾*d.* per yard; make and accessories, 6 to 7 francs = 4*s.* 9½*d.* to 5*s.* 7*d.*	41	0	1	12	9½
Petticoat, woollen, ready-made	11	0	0	8	9½
Apron, at 2 francs to 5 francs = 1*s.* 7*d.* to 4*s.*	5	0	0	4	0
Stays	7	0	0	5	7
Shift, coarse cotton cloth, 3⅓ yards at 45 centimes = 4½*d.* per yard; make and accessories, 80 centimes = 7¾*d.*	3	5	0	2	5¼
Stockings, cotton, with supply of thread to darn them with	0	80	0	0	7¾
Stockings, woollen, with supply of wool to darn them with	2	50	0	2	0
*Undercloth*ing, cotton fustian, 2 yards at 1 franc 5 centimes = 10*d.* per yard	2	10	0	1	8½
Jacket, ready made, at 5 francs to 8 francs = 4*s.* to 6*s.* 4¾*d.*	8	0	0	6	4¾
Neckerchief, at 1 franc 50 centimes to 3 francs = 1*s.* 2¼*d.* to 2*s.* 4¾*d.*	3	0	0	2	4¾
Bonnet at 4 francs to 5 francs = 3*s.* 2¼*d.* to 4*s.*	5	0	0	4	0
Gloves, warm	1	50	0	1	2¾
Shawl, at 15 francs to 20 francs = 12*s.* to 16*s.*	20	0	0	16	0
Comb	0	70	0	0	6¾
Shoes, at 8 francs to 9 francs = 6*s.* 4¾*d.* to 7*s.* 2¼*d.*	9	0	0	7	2¼
Shoes with wooden soles	3	0	0	2	4¾
Pocket handkerchief, printed	0	60	0	0	5¼
Under-waistcoat, fustian, 2⅓ yards at 90 centimes = 8½*d.* per yard	2	10	0	1	8½
Hood for winter use	3	0	0	2	4¾
Total	128	35	5	2	8

(No. 13.)—TABLE showing the Average Annual Expenditure for Clothing of a Woman of the Working Class.

	Fr.	c.	£	s.	d.
Dress, price 41 francs, usually worn three years	13	33	0	10	8¼
Petticoat, price 11 francs, usually worn two years	5	50	0	4	4¾
Apron, price 5 francs, two required every year	10	0	0	8	0
Stays, price 7 francs, two required every year	14	0	0	11	2¼
Shift, price 3 francs 5 centimes, two required every year	6	10	0	4	10½
Stockings, cotton, price 80 centimes, two required every year	1	60	0	1	3¼
Stockings, woollen, price 2 francs 50 centimes, two required every year	5	0	0	4	0
Underclothing, price 2 francs 10 centimes, usually worn one year	2	10	0	1	8¼
Jacket, price 8 francs, usually worn two years	4	0	0	3	2¼
Neckerchief, 3 francs, usually worn one year	3	0	0	2	4¾
Bonnet, price 5 francs, usually worn four years	1	25	0	1	0
Gloves, price 1 franc 50 centimes, usually worn two years	0	75	0	0	7
Shawl, price 20 francs, usually worn ten years	2	0	0	1	7
Comb, price 70 centimes, usually worn one year	0	70	0	0	6¾
Shoes, price 9 francs, usually worn one year, but require being twice re-soled; extra expense, 5 francs 60 centimes = 4*s.* 5¾*d.*	14	60	0	11	8
Shoes, price 3 francs, usually last one year, but require being re-soled six times; extra expense, 4 francs 60 centimes = 3*s.* 7¼*d.*	7	50	0	6	0
Pocket-handkerchief, price 60 centimes, two required per annum	1	20	0	0	11½
Under-waistcoat, price 2 francs 10 centimes, usually worn one year	1	80	0	1	5¼
Hood, price 3 francs, usually worn two years	1	50	0	1	2¼
Total	95	83	3	16	8

(No. 14.)—TABLE showing the Average Annual Cost of Clothing for a Boy under 14, belonging to the Working Class.

	Fr.	c.	£	s.	d.
Coat, cotton warp linen, price including lining, 4 francs 50 centimes = 3*s.* 7½*d.*; make and accessories, 2 francs 50 centimes = 2*s.*; altogether, 7 francs = 5*s.* 7½*d.*: one required per annum	7	0	0	5	7¼
Waistcoat of the same material as the coat, at 3 francs 50 centimes = 2*s.* 9½*d.*, one usually lasts a year	3	50	0	2	9½
Trowsers of the same material as the coat, cloth 4 francs = 3*s.* 2½*d.*; make, 1 franc 50 centimes = 1*s.* 2½*d.*: 3 pairs per annum	16	50	0	13	2½
Shirt, cotton, at 2 francs 50 centimes = 2*s.*, two per annum	5	0	0	4	0
Stockings, cotton, at 1 franc = 9½*d.*, two pairs per annum	2	0	0	1	7
Stockings, woollen, at 2 francs 50 centimes = 2*s.*, two pairs per annum	5	0	0	4	0
Shoes, at 5 francs to 7 francs = 4*s.* to 5*s.* 7½*d.*; re-soling them twice a-year, 2 francs 20 centimes = 1*s.* 9*d.* each time ..	11	40	0	9	1¼
Necktie at 1 franc = 9½*d.*	1	0	0	0	9½
Cap, woollen	1	60	0	1	3½
Pocket-handkerchief, at 40 centimes = 3¾*d.*, two per annum	0	80	0	0	7¾
Braces, at 60 centimes the pair, one per annum	0	60	0	0	5¾
Total	54	40	2	3	6

The expense, with regard to girls of the same age, is about the same; above 14 it is on a par with that of women.

TRIPOLI.

Consul-General Drummond-Hay to Earl Granville.—
(Received December 12.)

My Lord, *Tripoli, Barbary, November 12, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour, in compliance with Mr. Arthur Otway's Circular despatch of the 7th June last, to transmit herewith, inclosed to your Lordship, my Report on the condition of the industrial classes in this country.

I have, &c,
(Signed) F. R. DRUMMOND-HAY.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul-General Drummond-Hay on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Regency of Tripoli, in Barbary.

IN a country like this, where everything continues in such a crude and original state, I cannot point to any rules, laws, or regulations specially affecting the working classes or their employers, and the industries of the country are so very few that little of interest can be said in any way on the subject.

The principal industry of the country is agriculture, and, including this with the few handicrafts that exist, it might be said that the whole population, exceptthe few in the civil and military service of the Government, are of the industrial classes.

There are no large factories of any kind, and consequently no large employers of labour. Those who hire men do so rather as assistants to themselves in their own labours than as an exclusive class of labourers.

In the country parts the Arabs, both employers and employed, dispense with the luxury of houses and occupy only their tents, or live in the open air. In the towns and villages the houses of the labouring classes are in every respect of a very inferior description, there being an entire absence of ventilation, drainage, cleanliness, and, indeed, of every thing that conduces to health.

The food of the labouring classes is simple in the extreme. It consists chiefly of fruit, a little roasted barley meal, bread, and oil. In the summer green fruits are eaten, and in the winter dried dates and buttermilk form almost the sole food of the multitude. Meat and eggs, and even oil and bread, are rather luxuries, which they do not very often enjoy.

Agricultural labourers are employed by the day, month, and year, and they are not unfrequently paid by a share of the crop. By the day they are paid at the rate of 3 to 4 piastres (6*d.* to 8*d.*) board wages, and at the rate of 60 to 100 piastres (10*s.* to 16*s.* 6*d.*) per month, with food such as the above, By the year they get from 80 to 140 piastres (about 6*s.* 6*d.* to 1*l.* 3*s.*), with food and clothing; but it is usually boys and younger men that are thus employed and for light work. General labourers in the towns, such as attendants on masons, &c., get from 4 to 5 piastres (8*d.* to 10*d.*) per day board wages.

Masons, joiners, and artizans generally get from 12 to 20 piastres (2*s.* to 3*s.* 4*d.*) per day. Arab and Jew artizans work at the lower rate of 2*s.* European artizans get 2*s.* 6*d.* a-day, and a few of the best workmen as much as 3*s.* 4*d.*

This climate being temperate and healthy one requires, in order to preserve health, only to be ordinarily careful in regard to food, drink, clothing, lodging, &c. The climate, however, is more relaxing than that of Great Britain, and therefore a man cannot do quite as much work here as there with safety to himself.

In any of the towns of the country a working man can find tolerably healthy lodgings at no great distance from the seat of his labour. But he cannot find well-ventilated rooms, nor premises well drained nor free from miasmatic emanations. The risk, however, to the health of his family from such causes is small. In the country the labourers, unless provided with tents, usually live in the open air.

Workmen are not generally competent in their several departments, they do not take a pride in their work, and it is generally of inferior quality, that is, of course, comparing it with an English standard.

Strikes are quite unknown. Artizans would make no combined standard either against low wages or bad work.

There is no class of them who, from a sense of honour in its execution, could be depended on to do good work, though individual instances might no doubt be found.

I am unable to say whether skill and trustworthiness in workmen have improved the general rate of wages; but individual workmen possessing these qualities can always command employment at half as much more wages per day as an ordinary workman.

There are some Maltese and other European artizans here—blacksmiths, joiners, masons, shoemakers, tailors, &c.—who, as a rule, are regularly employed, or can create employment for themselves at remunerative wages. But I hardly think that these people on the whole live as well here, or as respectably, as the same class of workmen live in England, nor do I think that as a rule they are able to save money.

Altogether the industrial classes of this country may be said to be in fairly comfortable circumstances. They do not, it is true, enjoy what an English mechanic would consider substantial comforts; but, on the other hand, there is no great amount of misery, at all events amongst the able-bodied and industrious.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Power.
	Local.	British.	
	Turk. Pias.	*s.* *d.* *s.* *d.*	
Agricultural labourers, per day	3 to 5	0 6 to 0 10	About the same as in England, or if anything a little more.
Artizans .. „	12 20	2 0 3 4	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Simple.
Clothing.—Simple.
Lodging.—Inferior, but not unhealthy.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Quality of work.—Inferior.

TURKEY.

ALEPPO.

Consul Skene to the Earl of Clarendon.—(*Received August* 16.)

My Lord, *Aleppo, August* 2, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Mr. Otway's circular of the 17th June last, regarding the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries.

As information is called for with a view to elucidating the question of the existence of new fields for English labour, it is quite impossible for me to report to your Lordship otherwise than that no such field exists in this essentially Oriental and impoverished Consular district.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. H. SKENE.

ANATOLIA.

Consul Palgrave to Earl Granville.—(*Received November .*)

My Lord, *Trebizond, October* 27, 1870.

In compliance with Mr. Otway's Circular dated July 7, 1870, and inclosing copies of two other Circular despatches, issued by the late Earl of Clarendon, and dated respectively April 30, 1869, and June 7, 1870, I have now the honour to forward, as single inclosure, the accompanying Report on the condition of the industrial classes in these parts of Asia Minor.

The information required seeming principally, if not wholly, to regard the economical and hygienic circumstances of the said classes, both in themselves and with a view to emigrant prospects, I have restricted myself as closely as possible to those topics, omitting, or only incidentially touching on educational, social, and other considerations, interesting in themselves, but apparently foreign to the chief object in view.

Accordingly, I have the honour of sending in this Report somewhat early, that should any error or omission have occurred on my part, there may be time for notice and correction.

The estimates contained in the present inclosure are based on my own personal observation of the labouring classes, with whom I have been in close contact, and in whose dwellings I have repeatedly lodged during my frequent journeys through these provinces.

I have, &c.

(Signed) W. GIFFORD PALGRAVE.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Palgrave on Matters connected with the Position of the Artizan and Industrial Classes in the Northern and Central Provinces of Anatolia.

Preface.

In order practically to appreciate the condition of the artizan and industrial classes in a given country,

especially with reference to the possibilities of emigration thither, some preliminary notice of the localities themselves and their climate appears requisite, the more so because labouring men are, of all others, the most liable to be affected by topical and atmospheric influence.

Country and Climate.

The surface extent to which this Report will primarily refer comprises the provinces of Trebizond, Sivas, Angorah, and Kastamouni, in other words, the greater part of the north coast and the entire centre of Anatolia.

This space again may, for our present purpose, be conveniently divided into two zones, different both in climate and produce.

The Coast.

And first, the coast zone. Its length is of about 450 miles, its average breadth 30 miles, from the Black Sea southwards. It is mountainous and well watered, often densely wooded up to 5,000 or 6,000 feet above the sea level; the higher summits are pasture-lands and rock, where the snow lies in patches all the year through.

The climate of this region is mild and extremely damp; dense fogs habitually cover land and sea from the beginning of March to the end of May, and continue to hang on the mountain sides most of the remaining months. Rain is abundant at all times, but its greatest frequency is from February to September inclusive. The extreme range of the thermometer on the coast is from 25° to 90° Fahrenheit, the yearly average about 63°. Barometric pressure at the sea-shore level averages 20° 30′.

Intermittent fevers prevail all along the coast to such a degree that those of the inhabitants who can, emigrate yearly to the mountains inland, and there remain from the middle of June till the end of September. Typhus and typhoid fever are general in winter and spring, diarrhœa in summer and autumn, rheumatism in all seasons.

The chief agricultural products of this zone are as follows:—

Maize, which, under the form of bread, constitutes

the staple food of the industrial population, especially in the villages.

Tobacco, of inferior quality.

Hemp, a remunerative crop.

Corn and barley, less cultivated than maize.

Rice, increasingly grown, quality middling.

Millet and lentils.

Potatoes, turnips, beet-root, cabbages, onions, pumpkins, and other vegetables, sufficiently plentiful, but of a poor, watery, and flavourless type, owing to defective cultivation.

Vines, grown partly for wine, partly for fruit, fresh or dry, susceptible of much extension and improvement.

Silk, for the rearing of which mulberry trees are being every year more widely planted.

Olives, lemons, oranges, and other fruits, these ripen only in sheltered places.

Lastly, the coast, though possessing only two really good harbours, namely, Sinope and Batoom, abounds in roadsteads, little creeks, and bays, available for boats and small craft; while the brackish waters of the Black Sea, though destitute of the better qualities of fish, abound in the inferior sorts, which are freely eaten by the natives.

The Interior.

Follows the inland zone or central Anatolia. Here the climate is much drier, the sky is generally clear, except in winter, though violent, but not lasting, rains are apt to fall at other times of the year. Snow lies on the ground from one to three months, fogs are rare. The thermometer in many localities sinks to zero during winter, while in summer it rises to 100° Fahrenheit, and even upwards, the average range is about 64° 65′. I have not ascertained the average barometric pressure.

The forests are scanty, the general aspect of the country alternates between wide open undulating plains with deep soil and rocky stretches, often interspersed with good pasturage. The land is traversed in all directions by large and rapid rivers, often available for irrigation, and clear springs of water abound everywhere.

Hygienic conditions are good, the climate is in general healthy and bracing, except in some of the deeper valleys, which are subject to intermittent fever,

but on the open plains and plateaus nothing of the kind is known.

Cereals form the staple agricultural produce; corn and barley are abundant and excellent, also rye and oats, though the cultivation of the latter is somewhat neglected; turnips, carrots, beet-root, pot-herbs, and the like succeed excellently where tried; orchard fruits, such as apples, pears, apricots, plums, peaches, besides melons of every kind, require only a little horticultural care to become first-rate in quality. Silk does well in the valleys, and cotton has been planted with a tolerably good result in some favourable spots. Lastly, the wool of the sheep reared on these pasture lands is remarkably fine.

General Statistics.

The number of the towns comprised within the two zones, coast and inland, is somewhat over forty; they contain from 6,000 to 50,000 inhabitants a piece. Villages are thickly scattered everywhere, and the total population may be roughly estimated at 4,000,000. The land, under a better administration, would easily support as many more.

Thus much for the country in general. I now come to those of its inhabitants with whom this Report is more directly concerned, the industrials and the artizans. These, whether long-shore men or inlanders, I will here divide into townsfolk and peasants: and, beginning with the former, I will further sub-divide them for clearness' sake into three categories.

Classification of Town Industrials and Artizans.

The first and lowest class shall comprise day-labourers, porters, job-men, having no fixed profession, and dependent on casual employment in the coarser kinds of work and the like.

The second class, somewhat higher up on the social scale, may consist of workmen belonging to a settled, though rough, profession, such as are stone-cutters, common carpenters, boatmen, smiths, bakers, dyers, tanners, and so on.

The third and highest class shall include the followers of sedentary professions, tailors, shoemakers,

pipe-makers, weavers, confectioners, ornamental carpenters, silversmiths and the like.

Taking these three classes in succession, I will first sketch the principal features of the mode of life ordinary to each, and then strike, one after another, the yearly balances of earnings and expenditure.

Class I.

The men belonging to this category are mostly unmarried, and have seldom a home of their own. Their day-time passes in the streets and coffee-houses; by night they find shelter under the entrances of goods-stores and baker's ovens, which they guard, or act the part of watchmen in the streets; occasionally ten or twenty of them unite to take possession of some ruined building or abandoned shed. Many, the porters in particular, are Tartar or Circassian refugees from Russian territory, and for these the local Turkish government ordinarily puts some resting-place of the kind just described at their disposal.

But the married men of this class have in general each his little house, the construction of which may, on an average, cost from 1,500 to 2,000 piastres = 12*l.* 10*s.* to 16*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* of English money). Such a house consists of two rooms; the one, open on two sides at least, serves for cooking and washing, the other room is for eating, sleeping, and everything else. Often some relative or neighbour shares the space. The walls are of lath and rubble, the roof is tiled, but the former are without plaster, and the latter without ceiling; the windows, small and unglazed, are in winter time closed with paper or rags; the floor is of stamped earth. The dwelling is, however, fairly well ventilated, for the wind and rain come in everywhere through the chinky walls and roof. In the inner room, all the occupants, men, women, and children, sleep promiscuously on tattered mattresses spread along the floor. Outside is a small courtyard, inclosed by high and crumbling walls; it acts as general dust-bin and sink, till a heavy flood of rain, or some extra activity of the women, clears it out; this happens possibly once a month. There is a drain, but it is seldom in working order, and is invariably too ill laid down to be of much service at any time.

Assemblages of houses such as these, some a trifle better, others a trifle worse, constitute entire quarters of Anatolian towns; the headmen of the district, or "Mukhtars," and the Municipal authorities never interfering in the interests of repair or cleanliness, except under pressure applied generally, I might say always, by some European resident alarmed at the spread of typhus or other disease.

Yet epidemics and contagion are, on the whole, less prevalent in Turkish towns than might have been expected; partly owing to the great extent of surface over which the cheapness of ground-room allows all this filth to be spread; partly to the free access of air and weather everywhere, as above stated; partly also, where the Mahometan population is concerned, to habits of personal cleanliness.

The house-furniture of the married day-labourer consists of a few copper pots and pans for cooking; a mattress or two, pillow, and quilted covering, all ragged, with boards to put under at night; a box, containing holiday clothes, his wife's silver ornaments, &c.; and a piece of Koordistan carpet to sit on. The total represents a value of 300 to 600 piastres (= 2*l.* 10*s.* to 5*l.*) English.

If the said domicile be on lease, the rent is from 200 to 300 piastres (= 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to 2*l.* 10*s.*) per annum. If the workman's own property, the interest of the prime cost for the fifteen or twenty years that the flimsy and unseasoned woodwork can at most hold together in this damp climate, with repair, will come to much the same amount.

The workman's clothing, namely, a jacket and trousers of coarse grey country cloth, a cotton shirt, home-spun; home-knitted stockings, light shoes of half-tanned leather, a girdle, and a felt skull-cap, with anything round it for a wrapper, costs him when new about 200 piastres (= 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*); and lasts from two to three years.

His wife and children, if he has any, make but little addition to his outlay on dress. The wife's ornaments are usually purchased by herself, and out of her own funds, which the Turkish marriage-law leaves independent of her husband; the children's attire, half-nakedness in rags, can hardly be counted for an expense. Boys, and sometimes girls, are sent to elementary schools, which, if Christian, take 1 piastre (= 2*d.* English) per head per

day; if Mahometan, afford instruction gratis; in either case the learning is little, and the discipline less.

On the other hand, marriage economizes thus far, that all household work, washing, cooking, and so forth, is done by the woman or women; while the children help in these or in other ways, so far as their age and strength allow.

The workman's food for himself and, if he is married, his family, consists of brown or maize bread, indifferent scraps of meat from a dirty cooking-shop, or a home-made mess of meal and grease, flavoured with a sprinkling of the small unwholesome sprats that abound on the coast; besides onions and unripe fruit. The cost varies, according to the number of mouths, from 3 to 6 piastres (= 6*d.* to 1*s.* English) a-day.

His taxes, namely "Imlak," or property tax, "Teme-Hu'at," or income tax, "Yol-Parasi," or Road-dues; "Resoomat," or incidental dues, and, if he is a Christian, "Bedel-Askeri," or exemption from military service, will amount to 50 or 60 piastres (= 8*s.* 4*d.* to 10*s.*) a-year.

If the workman happen to be a Circassian, Noghai, or Crimean refugee, which, as was before said, almost all the porters are, he and his are exempt from direct taxation as such. But then he has to pay a due, varying from 1 to 4 piastres a-week (= 2*d.* to 8*d.* English) to the "Hammal-Bashi," or "porters's headman," of the place; thus making a total disbursement of 52 to 208 piastres (= 8*s.* 8*d.* to 1*l.* 14*s.* 8*d.*) a-year.

It may here be noticed that these Hammals or porters are necessarily very numerous in Anatolian towns, where no wheeled conveyances exist, and where want both of street-room and of a tolerable pavement would render them unavailable in any case.

Coming next to earnings, the daily hire of a labourer of this class varies from 3 piastres (= 6*d.*), the lowest, to 6 piastres (= 1*s.*) the highest rate; besides an oke (= $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. English) of coarse brown bread, which is always given in.

To this the working man may add from 1 to 2 piastres (= 2*d.* to 4*d.*) by acting as night-watch.

Porter's work is paid by the job. The earnings of a man of this sort may be reckoned, taking one day with another, at 10 piastres (= 1*s.* 8*d.*) per diem.

Balances.

We will now strike the balance for each case that has been put; proceeding by fair averages within the possible limits on either side of the account.

Married Day-labourer.

EXPENDITURE.

	Prs.	£ s. d.	Prs.	£ s. d.
House-rent or costs	200	= 1 13 4		
Clothes	100	0 16 8		
Food, self and family, at 5 piastres a-day	1,825	15 4 2		
Taxes	60	0 10 0		
Sundries	60	0 10 0		
Yearly total of Expenditure			2,245	= 18 14 2

EARNINGS.

Wages, allowing 300 working days, at 6 piastres a-day	1,800	= 15 0 0		
Occasional gains, as night-watch, &c.	450	3 15 0		
Yearly Total of Earnings			2,250	= 18 15 0
Balance in favour of Married Day-labourer			5	= 0 0 10

Unmarried Day-labourer.

EXPENDITURE.

	Prs.	£ s. d.	Prs.	£ s. d.
House-rent or costs	Nil.	Nil.		
Clothes	100	= 0 16 8		
Food, exclusive of bread, at 3 piastres a-day	1,095	9 2 6		
Taxes	40	0 6 8		
Sundries	200	1 13 4		
Yearly Total of Expenditure			1,435	= 11 19 2

EARNINGS.

Wages, for 300 working days, at 5 piastres a-day	1,500	12 10 0		
Occasional earnings	300	2 10 0		
Yearly Total of Earnings			1,800	= 15 0 0
Balance in favour of Unmarried Day-labourer			365	= 3 0 10

Refugee, "Hammal," or Porter.

EXPENDITURE.

	Prs	£ s. d.	Prs.	£ s. d.
House-rent or costs	Nil.	Nil.		
Clothes	100	= 0 16 8		
Food, at 4 piastres a-day	1,460	12 3 4		
Dues to "Hammal-Bashi," at about 4 piastres a-week	200	= 1 13 4		
Sundries	150	1 5 0		
Total of Yearly Expenditure			1,910	= 15 18 0

EARNINGS.

	Prs.	£	s.	d.
Wages, for 300 working days, at 10 piastres per day, all included	3,000	25	0	0
Balance in favour of "Hammal"	1,090 =	9	1	8

Three remarks here suggest themselves:—

Firstly, the miserable position occupied by the married workman of this class.

Secondly, the position of the unmarried day-labourer and the refugee Hammal, both of whom, the latter especially, can hope to have realized by the end of the year a credit-balance of 3*l.* to 9*l.*, seems more satisfactory. But we must not forget that this result is obtained by the endurance of privations to which the commonest tramp in England would not long submit. And again, these earnings whatever they may be, are almost certainly destined to disappear in one future week, the week of marriage; when Eastern usages impose on all ranks of society indiscriminately the most lavish and disproportionate expenditure; and the savings of years are often thrown away in a lesser number of days.

Thirdly; that, even taking matters at the best, no prospect particularly inviting to the English emigrant workman has been thus far revealed.

CLASS II.

It is composed, with hardly an exception, of married men. For what regards lodging, food, and clothing, the expenditure somewhat exceeds that in the preceding class. Thus, a mason or a carpenter, for instance, lays out from 250 to 350 piastres (= 2*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* to 2*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*) on his suit; and from 8 to 10 piastres (= 1*s.* 4*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.*) a day on food and incidentals for himself and his family; his house, if, as in most cases, his own property, has required an outlay of 2,000 or 3,000 piastres (= 16*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to 25*l.*) in construction; and thus, between interest and repairs, represents a yearly expense of 300 to 400 piastres (= 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*) Should it be hired, the rent comes to much the same sum. Property tax, income tax, and other Government dues also rise, in proportion.

But, measuring by a European standard, the workman of the second-class is little better off, so far as

comfort is concerned, than he of the first. His house, though probably larger by a room or so, and somewhat better arranged than the dwelling before described, is, in its construction and the character of its accommodation, essentially the same; the food, though more abundant, and containing a larger proportion of grease and sprats, is not much more nutritious, and certainly is not more palateable; while the furniture of the rooms, if less restricted as to quantity, is the same as to quality—namely, two or three worn carpets, some cooking utensils, mattresses, and wooden boxes for clothes. The windows here too are unglazed, the chinks in roof and wall unstopped, not a lock or hinge does its duty, and the drainage is detestable.

The daily earnings of workmen of this category, whether on wages or by the job, vary from 10 to 14 piastres (1*s.* 8*d.* to 2*s.* 4*d.*) per diem.

Most economical among these men, and at the same time better off for what regards his gains than any other, is the long-shore boatman. Exactly in the same manner that the narrow and badly-paved streets of Anatolian towns multiply porters, so do the ill-constructed quays and defective portal arrangements of the coast multiply boatmen, till they form an important per-centage—20 per cent., perhaps, of the working population hereabouts.

These men are invariably whole or part-owners of a boat, which is worth, on the average, 600 piastres (5*l.*); their dwelling-houses, a degree better than those which I have just spoken of, are, in native estimation, even commodious; that is to say, the walls are partially plastered, the windows, though rarely furnished with glass, have frames and shutters, and the floor of one room at least is decently spread with country-woven carpets. House and boat together represent a capital of about 4,000 piastres (33*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*), and imply a yearly cost, between interest and repairs, of 450 piastres (3*l.* 15*s.*). By a wise exemption of old date, men of this profession are free from all direct taxation, in place of which they pay to the "Kaikjee-Bashi," or boatmen's superintendent, an officer connected with the port and harbour administration, a due of one piastre (2*d.* English) per trip. Of such trips a boatman easily makes half-a-dozen a day, or even more in fair weather, netting each time

3 piastres (6*d.*) on his own account, though of course both his work and the price he can set on it vary considerably according to the state of the sea in the roadstead. On the whole, we may fairly allow him 260 working days in the year, and set down his gains at 17 piastres (2*s.* 10*d.*) a day. On the other hand, he is, by the nature of his profession, more exposed to misadventure, both in his person and in his belongings, than are other industrials of the same category.

Balances.

Following the same method as in the former instances, I will now strike the Balance of Yearly Earnings and Expenditure for each successive sub-variety of this second class.

WORKMAN, as Carpenter, Mason, Smith, &c.

EXPENDITURE.

	Prs.	£	*s.*	*d.*	Prs.	£	*s.*	*d.*
House-rent, or costs	350	= 2	18	4				
Clothes	150	1	5	0				
Food, for self and family, at 8 piastres a-day .	2,920	24	6	8				
Taxes	75	0	12	6				
Sundries	100	0	16	8				
Total yearly					3,595	= 29	19	2

EARNINGS.

Wages, allowing 300 working days in the year, at 12 piastres a-day	3,600	30	0	0				
Extra jobs	200	1	13	4				
Total yearly					3,800	31	13	4
Balance in favour of Workman					205	1	14	2

"KAIKJEE," or Long-shore Boatman.

EXPENDITURE.

	Prs.	£	*s.*	*d.*	Prs.	£	*s.*	*d.*
House cost and sundries..	450	= 3	15	0				
Clothes	150	1	5	0				
Food, for self and family, at 6 piastres a-day .	2,190	18	5	0				
Dues to "Kaikjee-Bashi"	500	4	3	4				
Sundries	100	0	16	8				
Total yearly					3,390	= 28	5	0

EARNINGS.

For 260 working days, fair and foul, at an average of 16 piastres a-day	4,160	34	13	4				
Balance in favour of Boatman					770	= 6	8	4

Remarks.

Firstly, it appears that the yearly credit balance of the married workman (and they are all, nearly, without exception, married) in this second and higher class hardly exceeds, even at the best, that of the mere day-labourer.

Secondly, of all who have been thus far passed in review, the Boatman's Credit Balance is the most satisfactory, because, though apparently less than that of the "Hammal," before given, it is practically much more, being, to a certain extent, based on capital; besides, it is the balance of a man married and settled in life.

Thirdly, no allowance has been made thus far, either in Class I or Class II, for the occurrences of sickness, accident, old age, and the like. It should be said that disablement, from whatever cause, simply implies the interruption from work, temporary or perpetual, as the case may be, and does not, as a rule, involve any medical or surgical expenses. For, firstly, there are no professional men worthy the names of surgeons or of doctors in these parts of Anatolia; and, secondly, if there were any, they would find few clients or none among the workmen. The sick or maimed Mahometan calls in a Koran-reader, the Christian gets a charm manufactured by his priest; the fee in the latter case is trifling, and in the former the services rendered are gratuitous.

But then, on the other hand, savings-banks and all analagous institutions for preserving from waste, and for putting to profit the working man's little economies, are here totally unknown. Money which has been saved is either hoarded in the corner of an old box, or *is* put out, often by the smallest possible sums, even of a few piastres, on private loan at usurious interest—30 per cent. or more. The former plan generally ends in the capital being stolen, the latter in its being never returned. Nor is there any poor-law organization in Turkey; nor, in Anatolia, at least, any kind of association or other mechanism for relief, whether public or private, out-doors or in-doors. The only resource available in the hour of want or emergency is the private charity of relatives, or of other kindly-disposed individuals; and this description of charity, though, to their

honour be it said, very ample among both Mahometans and Christians, is necessarily uncertain, and, in the long run, insufficient.

Now the working man's credit balance in either of the classes reviewed, first or second, is, as we have already seen, very small in general, and readily exhausted. Accordingly, sickness, accident, family disablements, and old age, offer but a dreary prospect to the town labourer or artizan, who, after a long and hard struggle to keep his head above water by work, stint, borrowing, and charity, ends, nine cases out of ten, his days in debt, in poverty, and, not seldom, in actual beggary.

Exceptions do, though rarely, occur; and men of these conditions may ultimately rise to comparative ease and wealth, accounted for, in some instances, by superior excellence of work, by prudence and industry. But much more commonly, the explanation of the phenomenon is to be found in successful usury, or in other still more equivocal causes: mere honest labour has too seldom such a result.

Lastly, nothing seems thus far to have presented itself of a character to allure the British emigrant workman to the Anatolian towns.

Class III.

It comprises all those engaged in sedentary manual labour, or in ornamental work. Here both expenditure and earning take a higher rate.

The dwelling-houses, whether on lease or personal property,—the latter being the more ordinary circumstance,—though flimsy in construction and far from weather-proof, have some pretension to size and neatness. The walls are plastered and whitewashed, the windows are occasionally glazed, the rooms are more or less carpeted, and perhaps even furnished with a cheap divan, a deal table or two, and a few chairs; the courtyard may also include a little potherb garden. The interest of the construction-cost, with repairs, or the rent, if the building be on lease, will vary from 500 to 1,000 piastres (*4l. 3s. 4d.* to *8l. 6s. 8d.*) a year. An entire suit of clothes for a man in this rank of life can be procured at 500 to 600 piastres (*4l. 3s. 4d.* to *5l.*), and lasts about three years. The daily outlay for food and sundries is

from 10 to 15 piastres (1*s.* 8*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.*). The workshop, which, for professions of this category, is always at some distance from the dwelling, is hired at a rent of 600 to 1,000 piastres (5*l.* to 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*) a year. For keeping the shop a Government license or "Tezkereh," annually renewed, is required; its price is 25 piastres (4*s.* 2*d.*); direct taxation takes about 90 piastres (15*s.*) more yearly.

The worst off among the many sub-varieties of this class are weavers and pipe-makers; their earnings seldom exceeding 16 piastres (2*s.* 8*d.*) a-day. Tailors and shoemakers easily realize 20 to 24 piastres (3*s.* 4*d.* to 4*s.*); confectioners, ornamental carpenters, and the like, rather more; silversmiths, who find plenty of employment in the East, and whose profits are ordinarily estimated at 30 to 40 piastres (5*s.* to 6*s.* 8*d.*) a-day, stand highest of all.

Balances.

Taking averages as before, I will now strike the balance for this class; one specimen may here suffice.

ARTIZAN of the Third Class.

EXPENDITURE.

	Prs.	£	*s.*	*d.*	Prs.	£	*s.*	*d.*
House-costs or rent	800	= 6	13	4				
Clothes	180	1	10	0				
Food for self and family, at 11 piastres a-day .	4,015	33	9	2				
Shop-rent and license	750	6	5	0				
Taxes	90	0	15	0				
Sundries	150	1	5	0				
Total yearly					5,985	= 49	17	6

EARNINGS.

For 300 working days, at 25 piastres a-day					7,500	62	10	0
Balance in favour of Artizan					1,515	12	12	6

This calculation, it will at once be seen, is above the mark of some and below that of others; but it may, on the whole, be considered a favourable one.

Professional shop-keepers and tradesmen, shop-boys, clerks, domestic servants, and the like, do not seem to come within the compass of the present Report.

Comparative Condition of Town Workmen and Artizans along the Coast and Inland.

The foregoing sketches and balances hold good in most essential respects for the working town population, whether on the coast or inland. Some points of difference, however, exist, and these I will now briefly indicate.

The dwelling of the intra-urban labourer is in all cases, as may readily be surmised, far from salubrious, because ill-constructed, ill-kept, and often over-crowded. But the consequent evil effects are much more sensible in the perpetual damp of the long-shore climate than in the drier and more bracing atmosphere of the interior, and accordingly the health of the inland artizan is better in proportion.

Again, the food in either of the two regions is such, in many respects, as no European would willingly put up with. Meat is poor and fibrous; vegetables watery and flavourless; the bread is coarse and only half leavened; the country alcoholic drinks, wine, "rakee," and the like, are simply detestable. It is true that these defects are the fault neither of the soil nor of the climate, but the results of native ignorance, carelessness, and neglect; still, they exist, and, as matters stand, may long continue to do so. But these inconveniences are decidedly more marked in the sub-maritime districts than in the central provinces; they are again much more injurious in the former, because they there unite with the depressing effects of a feverish and atonic climate.

Of the cooking and the washing in use among the natives a word may suffice. They are both very bad in all localities alike; and, if done for hire,—a rare and not always a practicable arrangement,—are, in addition, twice as dear as in any part of Europe.

I notice, also, that the extremes of heat, and still more of cold, to which the inland is liable, render a greater abundance and variety of good clothing necessary there than on the coast. Fuel expenses are also increased in the former, partly by the long and severe winters prevalent in many districts, and partly by the greater scarcity of food.

Market prices are, as a rule, higher on the coast than inland; but labour prices conform themselves, on the

whole, so nearly to these variations that the working man's yearly balance is, in practice, little affected. In a word, up country he earns less and spends less; on the coast he earns more and spends more.

Further details connected with this topic will appear in the Appendix Lists of the present Report.

Nature of Labour-engagements and Rates of Wages.

The engagements entered on between town workmen and their employers or their masters of the same profession, as is customary with smiths, carpenters, shoemakers, tailors, and the like, are very simple, and seldom vary. The contract is, properly speaking, only from day to day or rather, from hour to hour, the men being, in fact, free to quit, or their master or employer to discharge them, at the shortest possible notice. Weekly and even monthly contracts are sometimes made, but the engagement is hardly ever a written one, and hence such arrangements, in ordinary practice, relapse into the former for want of a legal penalty or compensation to enforce their non-interruption.

Mere apprentices at first receive nothing beyond their mid-day allowance of bread; but by degrees they advance to wages, beginning with 1 piastre (2*d.* English) a-day. A premium is seldom exacted. In a few professions the under workmen are associated with their masters, as is particularly the usage among shoemakers in these towns.

Common workmen are paid by the day or by the job at the option of their employers; the result is much the same.

The old system of "Asnaf," or guilds, which contributed a practical sanction to labour engagements, and rendered them in some degree binding and durable, even in the absence of written contracts, is now extinct in Eastern Turkey.

Remarks on the Quality of Work, and the Business-Morality of the Artizans.

For what regards the former it is certain that in this part of the world, as elsewhere, good wages have a

tendency to produce good work, and *vice versâ*. But I regret to say that, on reviewing all the various categories of native artizans in wood, stone, metal, or other materials, I cannot discover any who, habitually at least, do their work in a really competent manner, who take a pride in it, or who can be said to bring, in a well-known phrase, "a conscience to it." In this respect all are much on a level, and the level is a low one.

Yet, at the risk of appearing self-contradictory, I must add that, so far as I can judge, many of these very artizans, each after his several kind of work, are in themselves fully competent to do it well, and would take no little pride in it were it so done. Nor do I think that they are personally less jealous of their good working character, or even—the Christians, perhaps, excepted—less honest than other men of the same order of life in other countries. What keeps matters here down at their present low marking is the meanness of the employing and the servility of the employed classes—conditions which mutually react on and fortify each other. No stand is made against bad wages, and hence bad work is accepted, both by those who execute and by those who receive it, as a natural consequence. My own experience, and some scattered instances that I have become acquainted with, where the employer has been honestly handsome, or the artizan, under the influence of some strong perfecting motive (the religious, for instance, which here takes the place of patriotic or partizan feeling elsewhere), have convinced me that neither skill nor patience are intrinsically wanting to Anatolian workmen in any department, when they are once assured that their skill and patience will be paid either in money or in what else is money's worth to men. Examples could easily be given did such fall within the limits of the present Report.

By way of excuse for the working classes of these regions I may further note what, indeed, the preceding Economical Statistics sufficiently explain, that the great poverty of the labouring men and artizans, taken as a mass, debars them from the possibility of acquiring much in the way of tools and implements really necessary to good success. Such articles, Europe-made, are, even at their original European prices, beyond the reach of ordinary Anatolian means; much more so when those

prices are augmented, as is here the case, by the costs and risks of distant transport.

To sum up: the causes to which the actual inferiority of Anatolian workmen is to be ascribed are rather general and social in their nature than inherent and particular. Want of equity, of honesty, even, in employers and employed,—a want itself due to the want of law and justice in the back-ground; poverty aggravated, if not originated, by the non-existence of any banking or sound commercial system; the depressing influences of an effete Government, and of an uneducated people; the all pervading feebleness of division and decadence; no nerve in the masses, and no example or authority in the rulers; a pernicious fiscal system, recalling to mind that of the later Byzantine Enpire in its worst days,—all these form an atmosphere in which everything flags, and which is no less fatal to excellence among the working-classes than it is among other and higher ranks of society.

Statistical Proportion.

The proportion which the number of artizans and industrials bears to the other categories of the urban population may be fairly estimated at five to one, perhaps a little higher. This is principally owing to the absence of machinery and mechanical contrivances of every sort, and the consequent multiplication of hands thus rendered necessary for work that might else be done by comparatively few.

European Emigrants.

After having thus in a summary manner, and with the omission of many interesting but less important particulars, reviewed the condition of the working classes in the Anatolian towns, coast and inland, I will next calculate what chances of success a European, and in particular an English, artizan might have if establishing himself here.

Probable Effects of Climate.

And first, considering the localities, I notice that the foreign settler would have, if he chose the coast, to

contend with a climate depressing at all times, and at certain seasons positively unhealthy; while, if he preferred the inland, he would be obliged there to undergo sudden and extreme alternations of heat and cold, very trying to an Englishman at least. However, when he has once crossed the first great mountain chain to the south, he will find an atmosphere pure on the whole and bracing; while the use of flannel clothing, the avoidance of all excess in alcoholic drinks, and the other common hygienic precautions will obviate any special risk; and the emigrant, if prudent, will easily support a good three-fourths of the exertion that he might have been accustomed to take when at home. On the coast, however, no care can save his strength from being so far reduced that anything much over half his original working task would ultimately prove dangerous, or even impossible.

Diet.

The country diet will contribute no less than the climate to this result. Meat, bread, fruit, and vegetables can indeed be procured in sufficient abundance at the prices stated in the Appendix; but the quality of all these articles is, as we have already noticed, poor and meagre. Native cookery, which is both dirty and, to a European, unpalatable, would aggravate all this. Inland, the emigrant would be somewhat better off as to the quality of his food, yet even there he would find it much inferior to what he had been accustomed to in his own country.

Lodging and Housekeeping.

Here the European artizan-settler will meet with still more serious difficulties. He will find but few lodgings to let, and those few of the kind before described, such, in a word, as he would be unable to endure for a week. Accordingly he would have in almost every instance to construct for himself, and the so doing would involve an outlay wholly disproportionate, if not to his means, at least to his gains. In the same manner, cooking and washing will cost him the double of what they do a native, who not only can get things cheaper, but is also prepared to put up with much that to a European is absolutely intolerable.

Native Competition.

Better skill, superior implements, and punctual industry would at first procure to the European artizan a certain run of custom. But the higher prices which he would inevitably demand, as well as deserve, would soon drive away customers used to, and in their hearts contended with, cheap and inferior articles; the delays and chicane with which his Anatolian employers would meet at every town, would wear out his patience; and the combined rivalry of the native workmen around, who would soon pick up from the new comer just enough to compete sufficiently for show and yet to undersell, would ultimately shut him out of the market. Want of friends in health, and of doctors in illness, would complete his discouragement; and his final failure would be a matter of time perhaps, but of certainty.

All this is confirmed by experience of the numerous European artizans, smiths, carpenters, and others, who have to my knowledge tried their fortune here. There remains at the present day literally but one who has been able to hold his own, and he is a Dalmatian. All the rest have quitted the field, some in disappointment, some in bankruptcy. That is to say, the advantages of skill and industry have in every case of individual competition, with one solitary exception, been overbalanced by the disadvantages of position; and I see no reason as yet in things around to suppose that fresh repetitions of the experiment in these quarters of Anatolia would lead to a different and a happier result.

This view does not, I am fully aware, hold good for Constantinople, Pera, Beyrout, Egypt in general, and, I believe, but not sure, Smyrna; but the causes there in operation lie no less without the limits defined at the outset of this Report, than the localities themselves.

How success might be obtained.

The issue might, however, be, and, where tried, has already proved, very dissimilar, if the competitive struggle between the native workman and the European immigrant be carried on, not by an isolated artizan, but by a body of such combined to a definite purpose in a factory or the like, under the direction of a steady and intelligent capitalist.

In an establishment of this nature many and the most irksome of these inconveniences above enumerated can be obviated by the mutual co-operation of the men, some of whom ought to be sufficiently acquainted with carpentering and building, others with tailoring, others with smith's work, and their wives with cooking and washing. Meanwhile the products of combined labour, machinery, and capital, for the special object of the factory, would effectually distance all native rivalry, and the fact of the paymaster being himself a European would free the workmen from the annoyances of systematic haggling and unpunctuality.

Here again I may invoke experience, and as an instance in point notice the silk-spinning factory and the flour-mill of Messrs. Krug, Stroh, and Co., South Germans, established at the town of Amasia, about seventy miles inland of Samsoon, and which have now worked for twenty years with considerable profit to the owners. The reasons of this success are precisely those just now summed up, and he has seen in practice. It is a complete colony of Protestant Germans, carpenter, smith, tailor, baker, and even clergyman included. They cultivate their own kitchen gardens, rear their own back-yard stock, and,—except for the raw supply of materials, meat, corn, and the like, and the coarse day-labour that mere Anatolian sinews can supply,—are completely independent of the natives. In a word, the factory is a colony, and therefore successful, and such alone can, and, if properly conducted, always will, succeed in these countries.

Further Conditions of Prosperity.

Two remarks will complete all that needs here be said on this branch of the subject, namely, the introduction of European labour into Anatolian town markets.

The first is, that the German factory and artizan colony just spoken of, as also, I am told, some analogous establishments elsewhere, have, partly owing to some still lingering remnants of Consular influence in the East, and partly to the convenient nonchalance of the local Turkish authorities been thus far along preserved from the fatal workings of the Imperial Rescript dated 7th September, 1824 (18th June, 1867), and the corresponding Protocol

of 28th July, 1868, notified to British subjects by the Ambassadorial Circular of 2nd November, 1868, by which enactments British colonists and their belongings are handed over to Ottoman taxation, and, for all civil and for some criminal suits, to Ottoman Tribunals. What consequences must necessarily follow on the actual execution of these conditions, ruinous in practice, however equitable in theory, I have already had the honour of stating at some length in my Report on the Anatolian Coast and Inland, 23rd November, 1869, under the title "Colonization." Experience proves that no European undertaking of this kind can prosper or even exist in these provinces of Asiatic Turkey except on condition of absolute independence from the Ottoman Administration, the Fiscal and Judicial especially, of our day; and this independence can only be assured by Consular protection, supported, where necessary, by the higher authorities.

A second remark is, that the subject-matter for emigrant artizan labour and factories is here alike abundant and various. Thus, to mention only what is most ready to hand, silk-factories, wool factories, and flour-mills are in great requisition, and would drive an excellent business. The immense natural resources, animal, mineral, and vegetable, of Anatolia have been often described elsewhere, and are sufficiently, though superficially, known already. Were the town labour market in a condition to make use of them they would flow in thither instead of passing on, as they now do, in a raw state to foreign exportation. Combined work, European capital and workmen, and freedom from official Ottoman interference, would soon render them abundant sources of manifold profit both to the settlers and the country.

Part II.

The Rural Working Classes.

Passing now from the towns to the country, we find all the labouring classes there summed up in one, viz., the agricultural.

We have, indeed, seen that, besides cereals and field-produce, other kinds of cultivation, such as that of the vine, the olive, and the mulberry-tree for silk, are extensively, the last-mentioned increasingly, carried on, both inland and towards the coast. But in no instance have

any of these been sufficiently developed to deserv[e] name of an art, or to occupy those engaged in the[m] exclusively as to give a distinct character to their [l]of life. Thus, again, we find most of the villagers a[t] the sea-line more or less mixed up with fishing and [t]the coasting trade, though this latter, overshadowed a[s] now is by steam traffic and deprived by Russian oc[cu]pation of its old resources on the Circassian coast, [no] longer affords the lucrative employment of former time[s]. But these fishermen and long-shore sailors are only suc[h] occasionally and by fits; their fields are what they loo[k] to for their staple maintenance and occupation. As t[o] the pastoral class, one very numerous inland, it is com-posed in great measure of Koordish and Turkoman clans, semi-nomade, wild, and almost savage in their habits; men to whom the titles of "working" or "labouring" seem scarcely applicable. Many of the ordinary villagers also keep or breed sheep and cattle; but these possessors of flocks and herds do not form a distinct category from those who are without them. The live stock is in almost all cases a mere adjunct; tillage is the main business. Lastly, some peasants, though not many—1 in 500 perhaps—exercise the profession of carpenter, smith, or weaver in their respective hamlets. But this again is only supplementary to their agricultural work; nor do these half-artizans constitute a class apart from their fellow-villagers.

The sub-varieties thus indicated will accordingly obtain cursory notice, where necessary, in the sequel of the Report, but will not involve any special demarcation. Nor need a marked distinction be drawn for this part of the subject between coast and inland; the differences which exist have been or will be sufficiently indicated in the preliminary notices of Productions and Climate, and in the concluding List of Prices.

Peasants.

This class is numerous beyond all others, and constitutes at least 19-20ths of the entire rural population. Anatolia is a land of peasants. Some of them are proprietors of the land they till, others tenants, the latter being to the former as about 2 to 1. For complete information regarding proprietorship and tenancy in this

t of the world, with the appropriate statistical details, g to refer to a late Report on "Land Tenure." But atever may be the form or title of occupation, the ult is much the same, though, as we shall shortly see, e tenants are, on the whole, rather better off than the wners of the land.

Average Condition.

Let us now select an average peasant, whether proprietor or tenant, and let us give him the average allowance of arable land, namely, 4 dúnems, about 8 English acres, according to East Anatolian measurement. More than this his rude implements will not permit him to cultivate to advantage. The market value of an acre of land hereabouts is, if for ploughing, 300 piastres (2*l.* 10*s.*) on an ordinary estimate; if for planting, about 130 piastres (1*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*).

The materials of the peasant's cottage, wood, stone, or unbaked brick, according to the district, cost him little or nothing, and the construction itself is in part done by his own labour and that of his friends, and is so far gratis. Still much remains towards completion that exceeds mere peasant skill; and the total expense of the dwelling generally reaches 2,000 or even 3,000 piastres (16*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to 25*l.*). Cottages to let are things unheard of in the country villages.

A barn requires for its construction about 1,000 piastres (8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*), and when once built may, like the house, last from twenty to thirty years.

A pair of oxen, here used for drawing the plough, as horses are in England, costs from 700 to 1,000 piastres (5*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* to 9*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*). The two animals taken together have hardly the strength of one English beast. Buffaloes are preferred where they can be had; the pair costs about 1,400 piastres (11*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*). A pack-horse, too, is indispensable for conveying field-produce to market; the price is from 450 to 800 piastres (3*l.* 15*s.* to 6*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*). Agricultural implements and house furniture represent a value of about 2,400 piastres (20*l.*) additional.

It would be almost superfluous to say that every grown-up peasant of these lands is married. His daily food for himself and his family comes to about 3 piastres (6*d.* English); thus much being spent on purchase, the

remaining and the greater part is the produce of his own ground. A complete suit of clothes costs about 200 piastres (1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*), and lasts from two to three years.

The quality of these several articles comes next under consideration. The cottage is fairly clean, especially if its inhabitants are Mahometan, and is much more spacious than the dwelling of the town artizan. Regularly it has three rooms, one for sleeping, one for sitting in, and one for cooking; but it is a cottage that no English labourer would wish to live in. Glass is unknown; the roof, made of wooden shingles in the coast region, of earth if in the interior, is far from water-tight, and the walls let in wind and rain everywhere. Drains there are none, not even when the villages are close built; but the lowness of the cottages, combined with the free access of air, renders the ill results less serious than might have been anticipated.

The peasant's food is mostly vegetable, and in great measure the produce of his own ground. Maize bread in the littoral districts, and brown bread, in which rye and barley are largely mixed for the inland provinces, form nine-tenths of a coarse but not unwholesome diet. This is varied occasionally with milk, curds, cheese, and eggs; the more so if the household happens to possess a cow and barn-door fowls. Dried meat or fish are rare but highly esteemed luxuries. Water is the only drink.

The women of the family join freely in field-labour, and so do the children as soon as their age and strength permit. Many villages are provided with schools; but the profit of the schooling is, like the cost, little or nothing.

Liabilities of the Agricultural Population.

These are regular, or incidental.

Of the first kind is taxation. For a complete examination of this subject, and the details of the burden under which the rural classes are crushed, I must once more beg to refer to the statements made in preceding Reports. On the present occasion it is enough to say that the average amount levied yearly by the Ottoman Government in Anatolia on each country householder, taking land-owners, tenants, and labourers of whatever degree together, the more with the less, cannot be estimated under 240 piastres (2*l.* English) per head per annum.

Seed is a regular though an indirect expense, being reserved from the last year's crop. Horse-keep costs little, for the animal seldom gets anything except what he picks up for himself when grazing; but his shoes and other equipments have to be bought and renewed. Analogous outlays occur for the oxen, buffaloes, and whatever other stock is kept; and when the peasant, as often happens, adds to his regular occupations a little wood carrying, charcoal burning, and the like.

This is the place to add a word or two on the debt-cancer, that corrodes the agricultural population of these provinces through and through. That every small landed proprietor, and almost every tenant, whether "muraba'" or other, is and must be deep in debt, will appear as a natural consequence on considering the balances, a little further on, the result of which we now so far anticipate. Now, debt in Anatolia, where no banking or other respectable credit system exists, means the falling into the hands of an usurious money-lender, commonly an Armenian, whose most moderate rate of loan is 24 per cent., more often 48 per cent., sometimes 60 per cent., and all this at compound interest. It is true, however, that the peasant borrower has rarely to repay the capital, having been already sold out of stock, land, and house to meet the interest.

Regarding the second class of liabilities, namely, the incidental or extraordinary, such as, sooner or later, befall the peasant through sickness or accident to himself, to some member of his family, to his horse, his oxen, or the like, nothing need here be added to what has been already said for analogous cases among the town workmen. Poorer even than they, the countryman has little in hand for the present, and absolutely no provision at all for the future; nor, as may easily be imagined, are the villagers better off in matter of medical or surgical assistance than their brethren of the towns, unless, indeed, that they enjoy a greater immunity from the visits of quacks and impostors.

Under the same head come lastly the various contingencies to which husbandmen as such are specially exposed, namely, droughts, floods, bad harvests, blights, excessive snows, untimely frosts, and the like. All these find the Anatolian peasant wholly unprepared. In the old days of the Ottoman Empire public calamities of the

sort were met by a corresponding diminution of taxes, or even a total exemption from them for a time. But the existing fiscal administration takes account of none of these things, and admits of no relaxation.

Quality of Work.

Everything connected with field labour is yet at its simplest and most primitive expression. The wooden plough here used is merely a crooked stick, shod with iron at the point, such as may still be seen in some remote corners of Europe; an implement, in a word, for scratching the soil, not for ploughing it. Next comes a wooden spade, or a two-pronged fork for turning up the clods; then a harrow, which is nothing but a hurdle of wattled twigs; these, with a sickle of the rudest description that tears up more than it cuts, and a clumsy iron hatchet, are the chief items on the list. Sowing is done by hand and broadcast; threshing, like that of biblical Palestine, is the work of oxen or horses, who partly trample out the grain, partly crush it from the ear by dragging over it a heavy hob-nailed board, on which a boy is seated to give it additional weight. Winnowing here means just tossing up the chaff and the grain together against the breeze.

Manure is seldom employed, never systematically, nor is it properly spread and dug into the ground. Of subsoil draining, a process which the nature of the surface strata in most places hereabouts, and the conditions of the climate, would render eminently useful, no one has so much as heard. Nor is there any established system of rotation in the crops; the land, when over-taxed, is left to lie fallow for one or more years, and then tilled exactly as before.

Lastly, the cultivation of vines, olives, and fruit trees in these districts consists almost wholly in letting them grow just as nature wills, without pruning, cleaning, clipping, binding, or even so much as turning the earth about their stems. Grafting is the only horticultural art known or practised.

Contracts.

The contracts ordinarily entered on for agricultural labour are of three kinds:—

First. "Muraba'lik," or an agreement for the half share of the produce at the end of the year, with tenant rights in the meantime. Practically, the "Murabaj" secures for himself the two thirds at least. This kind of contract is of its nature annual only; but under the easy-going landlords of the East it often glides into a life tenancy, and even a hereditary one.

Secondly. "Tesarref," or lease on fixed terms. Nominally the fifth, but practically and in most instances only the eighth, tenth, or even less, of the produce value roughly estimated. This contract may have a duration of five, ten, or any number of years. Like the former, it issues not unfrequently in life tenancy.

Thirdly. "Ijret," or day labour for daily hire. The ordinary wages for field work are 5 piastres, equal 10*d.* English per diem, with an oke, equal $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. of bread, into the bargain. Further board and lodging are not given. The earnings would be insufficient long to meet the bare life requirements of the labourer, if he had nothing else to depend on. Hence "Ijret" is only resorted to occasionally, and to fill up a vacant gap, especially about harvest time. The mere hedger and ditcher, if he has not a field of his own, or some other means of subsistence to fall back on, soon starves or emigrates.

Earnings.

We now come to the peasant's earnings. His eight acres, which we will suppose to be sown with wheat, the most remunerative crop hereabouts, and cultivated after the fashion of the country, will bear about sixteenfold. Now eight English acres correspond as nearly as possible with the space of land allotted by Turkish agricultural calculation to six "kilès" of seed grain, the full extent of a well-to-do peasant's tillage; and the "kilèh" again equals eleven-twelfths of an English bushel, imperial measure. Following up this calculation, we find the crop to be 12 kilès (= 11 bushels English) an acre, thus giving a total of 96 kilès (= 88 bushels). From these six kilès (= $5\frac{1}{2}$ bushels) must now be subtracted, to serve as seed for the next year, and as much for the food of the husbandman and his family, making a sum of 12 kilès (= 11 bushels English), or one-eighth of the harvest. There will remain thus 84 kilès

(= 77 bushels). These the peasant can sell at an average price of 22 piastres (= 3*s.* 8*d.*) the kilè, making 1,848 piastres (= 15*l.* 18*s.*) on the whole market.

Note, that to avoid complexity, I transfer the calculation of the tithe share levied on the yet unsold crop by Government from this part of the account to the general heading of taxation.

We will further suppose that by the occasional sale of curds, eggs, a few loads of wood, or the like, the countryman makes an additional 200 piastres (= 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*) in the course of the year; very few, if any, tillers of eight acres make more, or even so much.

Balances.

Next, referring, as above said, for what regards the several items of taxation to previous reports, I will strike the annual balance of profit and expenditure for the three principal sub-divisions of the agricultural population successively; and, in the first instance, I will suppose the peasant to be at the same time proprietor of the soil in his own right.

Peasant Landowner.

Expenditure.

	Prs.	£	s.	d.	Prs.	£	s.	d.
Food for self and family, at 3 piastres a-day	1,095	= 9	2	6				
Clothes and sundries	200	1	13	4				
Taxation	320	2	13	4				
Expenses for horse, implements, &c.	330	2	15	0				
Total yearly					1,945	= 16	4	2

Earnings.

Sale of crops	1,848	15	8	0				
Occasional	200	1	13	4				
Total yearly					2,048	17	1	4
Balance in favour of Peasant Landowner					103	= 0	17	2

"Muraba," or Produce-Partner Tenant.

Expenditure.

	Prs.	£	s.	d.	Prs.	£	s.	d.
Food for self and family, at 2 piastres the day	730	= 6	1	8				
Clothes and sundries	150	1	5	0				
Taxation	150	1	5	0				
Expenses for horse, implements, &c.	250	2	1	8				
Total yearly					1,280	= 10	13	4

EARNINGS.

	Prs.	£ s. d.	Prs.	£ s. d.
Sale of crop, allowing the "Muraba" two-thirds of the profits..	1,212	10 2 0		
Occasional	200	1 13 4		
Total yearly			1,412	11 15 4
Balance in favour of "Muraba"			132 =	1 2 0

TENANT on "Tesarref," or Rent.

EXPENDITURE.

	Prs.	£ s. d.	Prs.	£ s. d.
Food for self and family, at about 2½ piastres a-day	920 =	7 13 4		
Clothes and sundries	200	1 13 4		
Taxation	240	2 0 0		
Rent, at one-eighth the value of the crop ..	231	1 18 6		
Expenses for horse, implements, &c. ..	300	2 10 0		
Total yearly			1,891 =	15 15 2

EARNINGS.

	Prs.	£ s. d.	Prs.	£ s. d.
Sale of crops	1,848	15 8 0		
Occasional	200	1 13 4		
Total yearly			2,048	17 1 4
Balance in favour of Tenant			157 =	1 6 2

Note.—No account has here been taken of the mere day labourer, because his position, as above explained, is not permanent, but transitory only, in the agricultural districts.

Remarks.

That the largest credit balance of the three here assigned, and calculated on the most favourable scale consistent with fact, is a miserably scanty one clearly inadequate to any emergency, and by no means affording a reasonable hope of ease and comfort in declining years.

That, so far as comparison is admissible where all are wretched, the tenant on "tesarref," or rent, is the best off; the "Muraba," or produce-partner comes next; and the proprietor in his own right stands lowest of all three.

It is, however, worth noticing that the "tesarref" system is decidedly on the decline, being seldom met with except on "Wakf," or endowment, and "Meeré," or crown lands, both of which are undergoing a progressive diminution by sale and otherwise.

That the amount of Government taxation is in all cases, but more particularly in that of the landowner, wholly out of proportion to the means of the agricultural classes.

That, if to all this we add that almost every peasant, especially if a landowner, is deep in debt, with a millstone of usurious interest, yearly increasing at compound rate, tied about his neck, we shall further conclude, what is indeed fully borne out by experience,

That poverty, culminating in beggary, starvation, or emigration, is the normal prospect of the Anatolian peasant as such.

Village Artizans.

The peasant, if exceptionally skilful and industrious, sometimes augments his agricultural earnings by special gains as village carpenter, smith, weaver, or charcoal burner; while the long-shore inhabitant acts as occasional sailor, boatman or fisherman, paying, however, to Government a due of 6 piastres (=1*s.* English) per voyage.

The work produced by village artizans is of course very rough in kind, more so even than that done by townsmen. Still it is not unprofitable to the workman, and a peasant often adds in this way 400 or 600 piastres (=3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* to 5*l.*) to his yearly credit balance. But here again he is met by the unsolved problem of investment, no form of which is within his reach, except land, which is clearly unremunerative, or usury, which is not only illegal but hazardous.

General Tone of the Peasantry.

Here again, as before with the town workmen, I must vindicate the peasants themselves from the chief blame for this deplorable state of things. Taken individually, the Anatolian villagers are hardy, industrious, steady, and above all perfectly sober men, the Mahometans especially. But to put these qualities to profit they would require, firstly, good agricultural implements; secondly, ready means of market communication for the sale of their produce; and thirdly capital. Of these three things the first is out of their power for want of the third; and both, did they exist, would lose half their value in the total absence of the second. At present the

transport cost of a sack of grain from a hundred miles inland to the coast, amounts to somewhat more than the prime market value of the article itself. Then, too, over all is a Government, that taking much gives nothing in return; that taxes the agricultural population directly and indirectly, at a rate of 30 per cent., yet in requital provides neither public works nor public security, nor public justice, nor police, nor sanitary care, nor commercial freedom, nor any other benefit whatsoever. Worse still, the army-conscription, levied exclusively on the Mahometan subjects of the Porte, bears on the agricultural population, nine-tenths of which are Mahometan, with a weight alike disproportioned to their numbers and their means.

Lastly, all the depressing and demoralizing agencies enumerated in the first part of this Report, when reviewing and accounting for the low condition of the town labour-market, exist under aggravated forms in the rural districts, and there produce their worst effects. But neither the soil nor those who till it are primarily or principally in fault.

Emigrant Prospects.

In no case, and in no part of these regions, whether coast or inland, could a solitary European field-labourer hope to find, I do not say prosperity, but even existence. No efforts that he could singly make could effect any serious change in the disadvantageous circumstances around him, and he would consequently be exposed to the same poverty and privations as the natives, with much less power of endurance than they, while native competition and the other adverse causes recorded for the towns, but here intensified by remoteness and local isolation, would unite to render the emigrant's position alike unprofitable and untenable.

Another project is often canvassed in the East; that, namely, of a body of European agriculturists, establishing themselves hereabouts on the grounds and under the direction of a native landowner. But neither would this meet with success. Liberal offers would at first be made, and perhaps for a short time be even kept. But the divergence between European and Asiatic ideas of work, economy, punctuality, and, it is to be feared,

honesty, at least if the landed proprietor be a Christian, is too wide to allow the least reasonable hope of a satisfactory result from an attempted fusion of the two elements; except, indeed, by a total subordination of the Asiatic to the European, a condition excluded by the very terms of the proposed scheme.

Accordingly, we may here again, as in the former part of our Report, conclude that the only manner in which European agricultural enterprize can succeed in Anatolia would be that of a Colony; and that the prosperity of the Colony itself would be in proportion to its independence of the local influences around, and of the Ottoman fiscal and judicial administration in particular. The reasons for this have been given already. Such a position could, under existing circumstances, be only maintained by means of Consular protection, supported where necessary, by higher authority, and recognized by the Ottoman Government on what terms might prove respectively advantageous to offer or accept.

This principle having been established as a necessary basis for any solid superstructure, we will next briefly consider the remaining condition of success.

The coast, though pre-eminently fertile, may be at once set aside, for the unhealthiness of its climate would not, as matters now are, allow Europeans to carry on any lasting agricultural enterprize within the limits assigned by the Black Sea shore and the first mountain range. But beyond this range, southward and inland, no climatic obstacle exists. There, good farming and skill in cattle-breeding would soon render the food, both animal and vegetable, no less excellent in quality than it is already abundant in quantity, whilst a reasonable degree of attention to the exigencies of topographic and atmospheric change, flannel underclothing, avoidance of unnecessary exposure to the night air and dew, particularly from sunset to midnight, and temperance in the use of alcoholic drinks, if indeed total abstinence from them be not better in this part of the world, as for some constitutions it certainly is. Finally, well-constructed dwelling-houses, with water-tight roofs and dry raised floors, would obviate most inconveniences consequent on the somewhat violent alternations of hot summers and cold winters, in a climate healthy for the main, and well-suited to out-of-doors life and labour.

The locality being thus determined, the next subject for consideration is the composition of the Colony itself. Besides its purely agricultural members, whose number should not, I think, fall much short of a hundred, it should include some men sufficiently versed in house-building, smith's work, carpentry, tailoring, and baking, to meet the first requirements at starting; indeed, the less settlers hereabouts depend for anything—the supply of raw materials excepted—on the natives around, the better. The emigrants should also be, in a majority at least, married men; their wives could look after the washing, cooking, and farm-yard stock. Lastly, a school-master or reader might be added to the establishment.

The experiment thus theoretically described has been already reduced to practice by German settlers, at Amasia, as before said, and elsewhere; and it has, according to the measure of the undertakings, answered very well, though on a small and tentative scale hitherto. At the present moment a large body of German agriculturists are, I am told, about thus to fix themselves in the neighbourhood of Kastemooni inland, not far from Angorah.

The yearly Reports on Anatolia sufficiently indicate the varied produce of the land, and suggest what kind of cultivation, cereals, beet-root, tobacco, silk, or vine, would be the most advantageously entered on, and in which districts cattle and sheep-breeding, for which nature here affords every facility, would follow; the fleeces of Angorah are sufficient proof of what might be reared with proper care. And although a European colony could not, nor should, take its chief support from the surrounding natives, the latter would soon, in view of their own profit, aggregate themselves to the Colony, would add their labour, and, in process of time, their capital.

To sum up, under the conditions assigned in this Report, no better field, as for artizan and mechanical, so also for rural and agricultural enterprise exists perhaps in the entire Eastern temperate zone than Central Anatolia.

Appendix.

It now remains, in compliance with the late Lord Clarendon's Circular, June 7th, of the present year, to fill up the forms there annexed, so far as possible. This I will now attempt to do, noting only with regard to Form I, or "purchase-power of money," that its purport seems to be best fulfilled by giving a price list of labour, provisions, and other items interesting to intending emigrants in this country. By this method the purchase-power, taken in concrete, will become evident of itself, and can be readily compared with that existing elsewhere.

The somewhat harsh sounding statement, which will be found under the heading of Form III, will, I trust, be taken in conjunction with the facts noticed in the course of this Report, which alone can justify it, and of which it is the summing up.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

(A.)—LABOUR.

Description of Work.	Currency.	
	Turkish.	British.
	Piast. p.	*s.* *d.*
Carpenter, ordinary	10 0	1 8
Ditto, fine work	15 0	2 6
Mason, ordinary	8 0	1 4
Ditto, superior	12 0	2 0
House-painter	15 0	2 6
Boatman	20 0	3 4
Bricklayer	7 0	1 2
Common day-workman	6 0	1 0
Ditto	5 0	0 10
Boy	2 0	0 4

Remarks.

These wages are in every instance reckoned by the day, there being in practice no longer period of work contract. The kinds of work not included in the list are done by the job; the prices fluctuate, but are based in an average manner on the value of a day's work plus a day's food, that is about two-thirds additional to the values here assigned. But job-work is, as a rule, of a much superior quality to day-work.

(B.)—Provisions.

Description.	Measures.		Currency.	
	Turkish.	British.	Turkish.	British.
	Oke.	Lbs.	Piast. p.	s. d.
Wheat-bread, best ..	1	2¾	4 0	0 8
Ditto, inferior	1	2¾	2 20	0 5
Rye-bread	1	2¾	0 35	0 1¾
Maize-bread	1	2¾	0 30	0 1½
Beef	1	2¾	3 30	0 7½
Mutton	1	2¾	2 30	0 5½
Country cheese	1	2¾	5 0	0 10
Ditto, superior	1	2¾	11 0	1 10
Butter, for cooking ..	1	2¾	11 20	1 11
Table butter	1	2¾	13 0	2 2
Fish	1	2¾	4 0	0 8
	1	2¾	0 20	0 1
Salted sprats	1	2¾	0 10	0 0½
Caviare	1	2¾	38 20	6 5
Meat, dried and spiced ..	1	2¾	5 0	0 10
Ditto, superior	1	2¾	9 0	1 6
Fish oil	1	2¾	4 20	0 9
Olive oil	1	2¾	10 0	1 8
Fowls	each	each	4 0	0 8
Chickens	„	„	1 30	0 3½
Eggs	„	„	0 5	0 0¼
Ducks	„	„	5 0	0 10
Geese	„	„	20 0	3 4
Turkeys	„	„	33 0	5 6
	Oke.	Lbs.		
Potatoes	1	2¾	0 20	0 1
French beans	1	2¾	1 20	0 3
Onions	1	2¾	0 20	0 1
Garlic	1	2¾	2 0	0 4
Other vegetables ..	1	2¾	1 0	0 2
	1	2¾	2 0	0 4
Fruits	1	2¾	2 0	0 4
	1	2¾	6 0	1 0
Rice	1	2¾	3 0	0 6
Flour, wheaten	1	2¾	4 0	0 8
Ditto, inferior	1	2¾	2 20	0 5
Flour, maize	1	2¾	1 0	0 2
Charcoal	1	2¾	0 15	0 0¾
Wood, the horse-load ..	each	each	6 0	1 0
	Oke.	Lbs.		
Salt	1	2¾	1 0	0 2
Soap	1	2¾	7 0	1 2
Sugar	1	2¾	7 20	1 3
Petroleum	1	2¾	7 0	1 2
Coffee	1	2¾	11 0	1 10
Tea	1	2¾	70 0	11 8
Lemons	each	each	0 10	0 0½

Description.	Measures.		Currency.			
	Turkish.	British.	Turkish.		British.	
	Oke.	Lbs.	Piast.	p.	*s.*	*d.*
Olives	1	2¾	3	20	0	7
Candles, tallow	1	2¾	9	0	1	6
Ditto, composition ..	1	2¾	18	0	3	0

Remarks.

To reduce these prices still further to the standard of a single lb. avoirdupois English, they should be each multiplied by four and divided by eleven.

The market values assigned are for the coast; inland, all those marked in this Table are reduced by about one-third.

All the articles enumerated here, except fish, fish-oil, potatoes, wood, and charcoal, are to be had at two-thirds of the prices given in the interior; where, also, the quality of live-stock and agricultural produce is decidedly superior. But the articles above excepted are, on the contrary, dear and bad in proportion to the distance from the coast, of which they are some the produce, others the import. Wood and charcoal are especially dear and difficult to procure in some of the inland districts. Fruit is good and, eaten ripe, wholesome, particularly in the southern region.

The soap here mentioned is of native manufacture, and does not answer for European washing.

Petroleum is very dear inland. It comes by sea from America; for though it might be manufactured in the country, where naptha springs abound, the natives have hitherto totally neglected it.

Sugar, tea, lemons, and composition candles are all dearer inland than on the coast. Coffee is better and cheaper. The overland tea importation, through Russia, has of late years wholly ceased.

(C.)—SUNDRIES.

Description.	Measure.		Currency.			
	Turkish.	British.	Turkish.		British.	
	Arshin.	Yard.	Piast.	p.	*s.*	*d.*
Native-made woollen	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	4	0	0	8
	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	3	0	0	6
Native cloth, thick ..	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	9	0	1	6
Ditto, light	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	3	20	0	7
Blue Aleppo cloth ..	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	4	20	0	9
Native made shirting ..	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	2	0	0	4
European cloth ..	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	50	0	8	4
	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	90	0	15	0
European calico, plain	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	0	0	2
	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	4	0	0	8
Ditto, printed ..	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	2	0	0	4
	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	6	0	1	0
Stockings, country made ..	pair	pair	5	0	0	10
Ditto, fancy	„	„	25	0	4	2
Light shoes, native made ..	„	„	16	0	2	8
Boots, ditto	„	„	45	0	7	6
	Oke.	Lbs.				
Tobacco.. ..	1	$2\frac{3}{4}$	6	0	1	0
	1	$2\frac{3}{4}$	40	0	6	8
Wine, country	1	$2\frac{3}{4}$	2	20	0	5
"Rakee," ditto	1	$2\frac{3}{4}$	8	0	1	4

Remarks.

The native woollens and cloths, though coarse, wear well; the colours are remarkably tasteful, and stand washing. All these articles are hand-made; and all are cheaper, by about one-fourth, than on the coast. European articles, on the contrary, are naturally dearer.

The native-made stockings are strong and warm, and would answer very well for European workmen; but the boots and shoes of the country are neither well made nor lasting; the leather, too, is not properly tanned.

The country wine and "rakee" are bad and unwholesome; the same must be said of the ordinary French wine imported hither.

In most articles of List (C), the purchase-power of money is, on the whole, less than in Europe; while in Lists (A) and (D) it is, on the contrary, somewhat greater.

(D.)—CURRENT MARKET VALUES.

Description.	Measure.		Currency.	
	Turkish.	British.	Turkish.	British.
	Kot.	Peck.	Piast. p.	s. d.
Wheat-corn	1	1	9 0	1 6
Barley	1	1	4 20	0 9
Maize	1	1	5 20	0 11
	Oke.	Lbs.		
Grapes	1	$2\frac{3}{4}$	1 0	0 2
Olives	1	$2\frac{3}{4}$	2 20	0 5
Filberts	1	$2\frac{3}{4}$	2 0	0 4
Raw silk ..	1	$2\frac{3}{4}$	80 0	13 4
	1	$2\frac{3}{4}$	220 0	36 8

Remarks.

All these prices are those of the wholesale, not the retail, market. In the inland districts cereals stand at a-half, sometimes a-third, of the prices here assigned, but the expenses of transport equal or exceed the prime cost.

Silk increases yearly, both on the coast and inland.

Description.	Currency.	
	Turkish.	British.
	Piastres.	£ s. d.
Horse, for rough work ..	400	3 6 8
	850	7 1 8
Mare, ditto	300	2 10 0
	600	5 0 0
Pair of oxen	700	5 16 8
	1,000	8 6 8
A cow	300	2 10 0
	500	4 3 4
Pair of buffaloes	1,000	8 6 8
	1,600	13 6 8
Ass	300	2 10 0
Sheep	50	0 8 4
Goat	40	0 6 8
Lamb	10	0 1 8

Remarks.

These prices, which inland are at only two-thirds of what is here assigned, appear low; but then the animals themselves are poor creatures from long neglect of breeding, and can only go through about half the work of the corresponding beasts in Europe.

The horned cattle are particularly wretched. The country horses are naturally strong and thickset, and would answer admirably for field labour, were they properly looked after. The sheep, with a little care and selection, would become a highly valuable breed. Buffaloes are only to be found in the southern and inland districts.

	Currency.	
	Turkish.	British.
	Piastres.	£ s. d.
House-rent, by the year ..	200	1 13 4
	2,600	21 13 4
Land—		
Arable, by the acre ..	100	0 16 8
	1,200	10 0 0
For planting, by the acre .	50	0 8 4
	400	3 6 8

Remarks.

These rents are for the towns only, house lease being unknown in the villages and among the peasants. In the inland towns rent is at about half the rate here assigned; but in no case are the dwellings such as an English artisan would wish to live in without alterations that would cost more than the buildings themselves are worth.

As to land, the customary measurements are inexact, and the prices capricious; the article having no regular market or demand. The rates here given are the nearest approximation that, after careful inquiry, I have been able to make; they are at about four-fifths in land.

All considered, the purchase-power of money for this List (D) is less than in England.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Articles of diet generally plentiful and wholesome, much resembling those ordinary in Central Europe. The native cookery very bad. Caution requisite in the use of alcoholic drinks. Quality of food better inland than on the coast.

Clothing.—Flannel the best underclothing, both in summer and winter. Upper clothing according to the seasons. The native stuffs warm and good for rough wear; the tailoring indifferent. All unnecessary exposure of the person to the evening and night air dangerous. The rest much as in Central Europe.

Lodging.—Procurable in the towns, but uncomfortable, unhealthy, and dear. None at all to be got in the country. Where the emigrant must construct his own dwelling, as, indeed, he had best do even in the towns, and take care that the roof be rain-tight, and the floor raised and dry.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Very indifferent for the most part, whether in town or country, artizan-work, or agricultural. The labour-

ing classes, taken in themselves, wanting neither industry nor skill; but habituated to work badly because badly remunerated, and unable, for lack of capital, to procure suitable implements: the blame, accordingly, resting less on them than on their employers; but most of all on the defective conditions of law and contract, and the other social and administrative evils prevalent in this part of the empire.

(Signed) W. GIFFORD PALGRAVE.

Trebizond, October 27, 1870.

BEYROUT.

Consul-General Eldridge to Earl Granville.—(Received December 3.)

My Lord, *Beyrout, November 5, 1870.*

In compliance with the late Earl of Clarendon's instructions contained in Mr. Otway's Circular of the 7th of June last, I have the honour to transmit the inclosed three statements, from which your Lordship will observe that very little encouragement is offered for British workmen to emigrate to this country.

The information given, though scanty, is, I presume, sufficient for your Lordship's information, and to the purposes for which it is required.

I have, &c.

(Signed) S. JACKSON ELDRIDGE.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul-General Eldridge on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Beyrout.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.	
	Local.	British.
Labour—	Piastres.	*s. d.* *s. d.*
Blacksmith ..		
Carpenter ..		
Mason ..		
Tailor ..		
Shoemaker ..	12 to 18 per diem	2 0 to 3 0 per diem
Watchmaker ..		
Goldsmith ..		
Painter ..		
Agricultural and unskilled labourers	6 to 9 per diem	1 0 to 1 6 per diem
Provisions—		
Beef and veal ..	6 the oke	0 4 the lb.
Mutton ..		
Vegetables	2 „	0 1½ „
Flour	2½ „	0 1¾ „
Rice	3 „	0 2 „
Fish	9 to 18 „	0 6 to 1 0 „

	Currency.	
	Local.	British.
Provisions—	Piastres. the oke	*s.* *d.* *s.* *d.* the lb.
Butter	16 „	0 7 „
Lentils	2½ „	0 1¾ „
Sugar	6 „	0 4 „
Coffee, green	10 „	0 6¾ „
Oil	7½ „	0 5 „
Fruits	1½ to 3½ „	0 0½ 0 2½ „
Fowls	6 9 each	0 12 0 18 each
Milk..	1½ the oke	0 0½ the lb.
Eggs	1½ to 3 the doz.	0 3 to 0 6 the doz.
Country wine	3 6 the oke	0 2 0 4 the lb.
French table wine ..	4 „	0 2¾ „
Beer..	5½ the bot.	0 11 the bot.

Purchase Power.

In regard to the purchase power of money in this country as compared with England, I am of opinion that the wages obtained by artizans and workmen leaves little or nothing when the necessaries of life have been provided for; and therefore it would be impossible for English workmen to live in this land as well as they live in England upon the wages they would receive, accustomed as they are to a much higher dietary scale than prevails amongst the frugal inhabitants of Syria.

I find it impossible to give the British equivalent of wages in purchasing power.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Animal food, rice, and vegetables constitute a safe diet. Ripe fruit in small quantity is also wholesome. All ardent spirits are needless, and generally prove injurious when indulged in the excess. Wine, beer, coffee, and tea are useful beverages when taken moderately. The living of workmen is, on the whole, cheaper and better in England than in this country.

Clothing.—The weather is usually temperate, with a little excess of heat during the summer months, so that ordinary light clothing is preferable. The heat is generally trying to females and little children. In winter, although the cold is not severe, yet warm woollen clothing is necessary for Europeans, in order to keep out the damp. Any one wishing to emigrate would do well to bring out with him all necessary articles of clothing, as they would be cheaper and of better quality than could be obtained here. Ordinary out-door exercise, such as walking or riding, early in the morning, or in

the afternoon, is necessary for the preservation of health.

Lodging.—A working-man can usually find pretty good lodgings or houses at a short distance from his work outside the town, they being more healthy and better ventilated than within the walls. Ordinary dwelling-houses for working people, consisting of from three to five rooms, usually cost from 12*l.* to 25*l.* per annum.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

As a rule, the labour market is overstocked, so that immigrants would, with difficulty, find employment, and would be expected to work from sunrise to sunset, *i.e.*, about fourteen hours in summer, and about ten in winter, with an hour's rest at midday. In addition to the list of trades given in Schedule I, there is silk-spinning and weaving, the former performed by boys and girls, at wages from 8*d.* to 1*s.* a day, and the latter by men, at about 1*s.* 6*d.* a day.

There are a few foreign skilled mechanics in the country who find employment when a better class of work is required than that executed by the natives, which, however, is generally good enough for most ordinary purposes.

The rate of wages given are those of ordinary workmen; greater skill and trustworthiness of course command higher rates, but not to any large extent, owing to competition.

Were the security of the country, and confidence in the Government, sufficient to induce foreign capitalists to undertake the cultivation of the waste lands in Syria and Palestine, under the recent regulations, there might be an opening for a limited number of agricultural immigrants.

BOSNIA.

Consul Holmes to Earl Granville.—(Received November 14.)

My Lord, *Bosna Serai, October 21, 1870.*

In reply to Mr. Otway's circular of the 7th June last, inclosing copies of two Circular despatches addressed by the late Earl of Clarendon to Her Majesty's Diplomatic Representatives abroad for Reports on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries, and desiring the same from the Consular Service, I have now the honour to inclose a Report on this subject for the province under my Consular jurisdiction.

I have, &c.

(Signed) W. R. HOLMES.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Holmes on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Bosnia.

The population of Bosnia is chiefly agricultural. The peasants are maintained by and work for the proprietors of the soil, and are very poor. In the towns the greater part of the people are small shopkeepers; and almost the only trade which offers an opening to foreigners is that of the carpenter, which here comprises that of the bricklayer, plasterer, painter and glazier. The native carpenters and bricklayers can scarcely perform the most rudimentary work; but, during the last ten years, an increasing demand for better houses and furniture has attracted a few Austrians and Italians, who suffice for the quantity and quality of the labour required. A few foreign tailors and shoemakers also gain their livelihood here by working for those who clothe themselves in the European manner. The chief supply of boots and shoes for the better classes are, however, imported from Austria and sold by general shopkeepers; but both the clothes and shoes, or sandals, of the general population are coarsely and roughly made.

at the lowest possible price, by native artizans, and the people desire nothing better or more expensive.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

The wages of those trades which chiefly offer employment to foreign workmen are as follows:—

	s.	d.	
Native carpenter	2	0	per diem.
Austrian or Italian ditto ..	4	2	„
Native tailor	2	0	„
Austrian or Italian ditto ..	4	0	„
Native bricklayer	2	0	„
Austrian or Italian ditto ..	3	4	„
Native day labourer	1	2	„

For these wages a workman can live, and perhaps save money, provided he is content with native food and lodging, but not otherwise. This consists chiefly of coarse bread, native cheese, and a few cheap vegetables, very rarely meat or poultry, and lodgings which I think an English mechanic would consider uninhabitable. The price of provisions here is as follows:—

Prices of Provisions.

Meat—		
Beef	1½*d.* to 3*d.*	per lb.
Mutton	1½*d.* to 3*d.*	„
Lamb..	1¼*d.* to 4½*d.*	„
Pork (very scarce)	3¾*d.* to 4½*d.*	„
Poultry—		
Geese..	2*s.*	each.
Turkeys	1*s.* 8*d.*	„
Ducks	7*d.*	„
Fowls	8*d.*	„
Chickens	5*d.*	„
Fish—		
River trout	7½*d.*	per lb.
Sundry	3*d.*	„
Crayfish	2¼*d.*	„
Fruit and vegetables—		
Apples, pears, cabbages, haricot beans, spinach, onions, potatoes, &c.	⅗*d.*	„
Plums, gourds, lettuces	⅖*d.*	„
Grapes and chesnuts	⅘*d.*	„
Melons	2½*d.*	„
Walnuts	1½*d.*	„
Cucumbers	5*d.*	per 100.
French beans	½*d.*	per lb.
Colonials—		
Coffee	8½*d.*	„
Sugar	6*d.*	„
Tea (not sold).		
Rice	3*d.*	„

Wine and spirits—	
Rum	4*s.* per gallon.
Sliegovitz (native plum spirit)	2*s.* „
Native wine	2*s.* „
Beer	9*d.* „
Sundries—	
Bread	1¼*d.* per lb.
Butter	8½*d.* „
Cheese	3*d.* „
Milk	2¼*d.* per quart.
Eggs	1*s.* 8*d.* to 4*s.* 2*d.* per 100.
Cereals—	
Wheat	41*s.* per quarter.
Barley	25*s.* „
Oats	16*s.* 8*d.* „
Indian corn	25*s.* „
Millet	20*s.* 10*d.* „
Hay	1*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
Straw (barley)	1*s.* 8*d.* „
Straw (common)	1*s.* „

These prices appear at first sight far cheaper than they really are, for it must be remarked that, whenever it is possible, everything is of the worst description. The vegetables are the most coarse and common of their species. The bread, even the best, is gritty from the bad millstones used in grinding, and full of other seeds. Bosnia produces fine cattle, but all the best of them are exported to Trieste, consequently the animals killed for consumption in the towns are those which can work no longer, or which are likely to become useless or unsaleable from ill health; and the beef in general is what in England would be considered uneatable. The mutton is only fair during a couple of months in the autumn, and is not killed at all during the winter months. Lamb is very bad, and is the only meat to be procured during the spring and summer, except the above-mentioned beef. In fact, meat is dearer, considering its quality, than in London, for there an equivalent is obtained for the price paid, but here one pays for mere skin and bone, which, when cooked, if not unwholesome food, is certainly neither attractive nor palatable. During the winter I am obliged to feed the sheep required for my family; the meat is then good, but it costs as much or more than similar meat would at home. Poultry is lean and tough, unless fed and kept after it is bought. River fish is generally to be got in the market, but chiefly of the commonest description, as chub, roach, and similar

fish, but few trout or fish of the better kinds are to be had; when these are caught they are generally taken to the richer class of Turks at once. Native butter is very bad and unfit to eat, the cheese is flavourless, and milk in the towns is poor and usually watered. Fruit is abundant and cheap, but, as is usual throughout Turkey, it is gathered before it is ripe, and therefore to an European uncatable and unwholesome.

Consequently, I should say that the purchase power of money in Bosnia is greater than in England, if quantity and not quality be required, and the native diet and habits of living be adopted; but it is not so great as in England if English comfort and good wholesome food be looked for.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

With regard to the power of preserving health in Bosnia, I consider that the climate itself is generally excellent, but it differs in different localities. In the mountainous parts the atmosphere is cool and bracing, and the most prevalent diseases are chiefly those consequent on abrupt changes of temperature; while in the Herzegovina and other low situations the heat is considerable, and miasmatic fevers are frequent; but in all the centres of population, in every part of the country, diseases arising from absence of cleanliness, want of drainage, and imperfect ventilation, abound. At Serajevo the climate is very variable; a few days rain, even at the hottest time of the year, lowers the temperature immensely, and this year I was obliged to light fires in the Consulate in the middle of August, and snow fell on all the surrounding hills.

The best diet for an Englishman in the mountainous parts of Bosnia is what he is accustomed to in England, and which, in kind, if not in quality, he can get here, as seen by the list of provisions. He can also get tolerable beer. The Austrians and Italians here live nearly as they do in their own countries, which is not very different from the native diet in Bosnia, but all are addicted to drink. The extreme cheapness of a spirit, made here in large quantities from plums, and which is by no means unpalatable, induces drunkeness in foreigners as it does among the natives. The women even drink this too liberally. In moderation, however, it is not unwholesome, as it is

quite pure and unadulterated and not very strong. The wine of the country is plentiful, but not usually good, being often very sour and tainted with the odour of the goat-skins in which it is carried about. As to clothing, it should principally be warm for the higher parts of Bosnia and of a lighter description for the lower. The male inhabitants of Serajevo are usually clad in thick cloth or furs all the year round, while the women are clothed much more lightly, and in the coldest winter days may be seen at their doors with bare necks and arms, dressed only in light calico.

The dwellings of the Bosniacs are ill constructed and unfit for the climate. They are built of sun-dried bricks and wood. The walls of the upper part of the house are of the thickness of one brick. The rooms are surrounded by open verandahs on which all the doors open, and two sides of each room consist of rows of badly fitting windows. On the ground floor the walls are generally thicker, and one room is there set apart for the winter habitation of the whole family, where they sleep, eat, and live habitually. A large stove maintains a heat which to a stranger is unsupportable, and as the crevices in the window fittings are pasted over with paper, and the windows rarely, if ever, opened during the winter, the atmosphere, as may be conceived, is quite intolerable, and must be extremely unwholesome. The upper part of the house is abandoned and is only used in summer, when from the nature of its construction as above described, it is the hottest part of the house. These are the habits of the better class. The houses of the poorer classes are mere hovels without any kind of comfort or accommodation, situated in the midst of reeking filth, and as unhealthy as overcrowded and air-poisoned dwellings can possibly be. It would be difficult for an artizan to obtain much better lodgings than these without considerable expense. The drainage of the whole town is very incomplete, and dirt and filth is left to accumulate in all directions. The best situations are those in which the richer people have larger houses, surrounded with gardens, where the naturally wholesome air is able to circulate. Whenever the cholera or other epidemic declares itself, the people in the poorer, and consequently more crowded and unhealthy quarters, are decimated. Thus it will be seen that for a person in a position to

procure the best style of native house, or to build a better one in a good quarter, and who lives well, but temperately, paying also attention in clothing to the sudden changes of climate, may count on good health and on unimpaired powers of work, but that the case is otherwise with those who cannot afford the necessary expenditure.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The quality of the work executed by workmen is miserably inferior. The workmen are far from being competent in their several departments. The native carpenter commences by purchasing a few rough tools and working under the superintendence and in aid of a more experienced workman, and in a few months considers himself a master of his trade. Their work is of the roughest possible kind. When I first arrived here, ten years ago, I ordered a cupboard to be made by a native carpenter, and to my dismay a most surprising article was produced, fastened together with huge wooden pegs. Dovetailing and glue were beyond the art of the carpenter as it then existed, and the boards exhibited all the marks of the primitive plane which had been used on them. I had to build a house, as I could not find one fit to live in, and I was wondering whether the doors and windows would resemble the cupboard, when I was informed that there was an Austrian carpenter here, who, I afterwards found, worked very fairly. He was the only one then in Bosna Serai. There are now some half-dozen more who execute ordinarily good work, but they are all drunkards, being, like most of the foreign settlers here, the dregs of the country from which they come. No artizans of any trade or class, native or foreign, seem to take a pride in their work. There is no emulation, but each gets what work he can, exacts the highest possible price for it, and usually executes it in the most slovenly and inefficient manner. All Turks and Eastern Christians, however, look far more to cheapness than excellence in what they purchase, and good workmanship and conscientious labour is neither appreciated nor encouraged. The consequence is, that he who works in the least careful manner and employs the worst materials can always undersell the better workman, who has thus no inducement to excel. No

work can be depended upon as good from the sense of honour of the workmen; in fact, I do not think that in any branch of industry can reliance be placed on the work done, unless it be reliance upon its certain inferiority in comparison with the price paid for it. When a house is being built or any work done in which day labour is paid for, it is usual for the employer to overlook the workmen the whole day, or to pay some one else to do so; if this be neglected they do little or nothing. They have no sense of honour, and, even when overlooked, their principal endeavour is to do as little work in the longest time possible.

From these remarks it is evident that quality of work will not command a proportionally remunerative price, and that where the cheapness of work, or any necessary object, is its sole recommendation, there is neither competence nor reputation to be gained.

From these circumstances, therefore, it seems evident that the condition of the industrial classes of the country within my Consular jurisdiction is not such as to encourage the immigration of the British mechanic either with respect to income, comfort, and health, or the appreciation of good workmanship.

(Signed) W. R. HOLMES.

Bosna Serai, October 21, 1870.

EPIRUS.

Consul Stuart to Earl Granville.—(*Received November* 22.)

My Lord, *Janina, November* 11, 1870.

HEREWITH I have the honour to transmit to your Lordship a Report on the position of the artizan and industrial classes in Epirus, in conformity with the Foreign Office Circular of April 30, 1869, to which are added the additional particulars called for in the Circular of the 7th of June last.

I have, &c.
(Signed) R. STUART.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Stuart respecting the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Epirus.

EPIRUS is a mountainous country, with a superficies of about 8,000 square miles, forming the south-west angle of Turkey in Europe. Its population may approximatively be stated as follows:—

Albanians	155,000
Greeks	135,000
Vallaks	32,000
Sclaves	18,000
Gipsies	12,000
Jews	3,000
Negroes	2,000
	357,000
Divided by religions—	
Christians	221,000
Mussulmans	133,000
Jews	3,000
	357,000
By sexes—	
Males	130,000
Females	287,000
Agricultural	287,000
Non-agricultural	70,000
	357,000

It will thus be seen that the population of Epirus is composed of fragments of very dissimiliar races. Between these fragments ages of contact have failed to produce assimilation; and as each still retains its original instincts, it may be regarded as a type of the race to which it belongs. This diversity is very conspicuous in their social and domestic habits; and, as it gives a special turn to their respective pursuits, it exercises a material influence upon the industrial condition and aspect of the country.

A few remarks by way of preface on the above figures may not here be out of place.

The Musulmans are sensibly diminishing in numbers, owing, among other causes, to the conscription and the annual emigration of young men to Constantinople and other places in search of employment. The same causes help also to account for the disparity of sexes which prevails among them. As to the other tribes, it is the rule of the Epirote Sclaves to seek their fortunes in other lands. Marrying early, they leave their wives and families at home, and set out, sometimes for the most distant regions, bent on making money wherever they go, and never return until they have succeeded in their object, which takes them, in most cases, the work of many years. Hence, with the exception of priests, old men, and boys, their district is almost wholly inhabited by females alone. The same custom prevails also to some extent among the non-agricultural Greeks and Vallaks. The Jews, the gypsies, and the negroes do not emigrate; with them, therefore, the sexes are fairly balanced. And nearly the same may be said of the Christian peasantry, who are, in a great measure, bound to the soil.

In the Return of Agriculturists are included the landed proprietors, as deriving their income from the produce of the soil; also the numerous followers and dependents of the Musulman land-owners, who form in aggregate no small item in the population.

There are about 3,000 shepherds; but I am not certain where they ought to be placed in the agricultural or the industrial class. Most of them partake a little of both, and are not, as in other countries, exclusively pastoral. They are mostly Vallaks, and are of two classes—the hired shepherd and the owner who tends his own flock. An active shepherd can look after as many

as 300 sheep. When acting for hire he is paid either by a share in the flock or at the rate of 4*d.* per head for six months, which is generally the duration of his contract. He has, besides, a ration of bread and shoes, or an equivalent in money.

The 70,000 non-agricultural comprise medical men—the only representatives in this country of the professional class, merchants, tradesmen, artizans, unskilled labourers, servants, and others, together with the town, but not the rural, clergy. To these are to be added sailors, boatmen, and fishermen, to the number collectively of about 2,000. With regard to these a few words will suffice. The sailors are either part owners of the vessels they man, or are paid by a share of the profits. They are also in many cases small proprietors, the work of tillage being done by the women of their families. The boatmen work on their own account at the different ports and *Scalas*, and in general make good earnings. A few dozen of them ply on the Lake of Janina. The fishermen are lessees of the Government Farmer of the Fisheries, to whom or to his agent they make over, in lieu of rent, a stipulated share of every haul. The share varies from a fifth to two-thirds, according to the value of the fishing-ground.

Passing over the professional and the mercantile classes, I proceed at once to the immediate object of the present inquiry, namely, the position of the artizan and industrial classes in this country.

The trades and handicrafts here are nominally organized in guilds ("esnaffs"), of which there are five centres for the whole province, viz., Janina, Arta, Prevesa, Berat, and Avlona. Between these centres there is no fellowship or community of privilege; so that the tradesman or artizan of Janina, if he happens to be in Arta, and in distress, cannot, of right, apply for help to the guild of his calling in that place. Each guild has its president and treasurer, and sometimes, when strong in numbers, a vice-president. These officers are annually elected, and none of them are paid. The duties of the president are little more than nominal; but he is supposed to exert an influence in maintaining harmony among the members, in settling points of dispute, in directing the disposal of the funds, while at the same time he watches over the common interests of the fraternity. But neither he, nor the

guild, in its corporate capacity, pretends to the right of dictating to the individual members, or of imposing restraint on their free and independent action. There are no restrictions with regard to wages, hours of work, terms of contract, or any other particular connected with labour or business. All these matters are left to adjust themselves according to the gravitating force of local or special circumstances; and every man has full liberty to act as he likes in the disposal of his labour, and to make the best conditions he can for himself. Out of this very freedom of action, certain well-defined limitations arise by spontaneous growth, which are recognized both by employer and workman, and which serve, in principle at least, to maintain the equilibrium between labour and wages.

The funds of the guilds are formed by a payment, varying from 10*s.* to 30*s.*, made once for all by each member on admission. Sometimes, in lieu of a money contribution, the new member gives an entertainment to the chiefs or elders of the guild. With such slender, and even precarious means of supply, the funds, it is plain, must be very inconsiderable; and can go but a short way towards fulfilling their ostensible end, which is, to afford relief to members in distress, to aid in defraying their funeral expenses, and to provide portions for their orphans left in a state of indigence.

In order to enter a guild, a man must be a master in his trade or craft, having his own shop, with workmen or assistants under him, who, in common with apprentices, are here called by the name of "kalfa." It is, however, to be understood, that a master may or may not, as he chooses, be enrolled in the guild of his calling. In point of fact, many do not apply for admission; and whether it is that these institutions are found to be useless, or that they fall short of their intended design, they are here very generally on the decline.

In dealing with this part of the subject, I must bespeak indulgence for some of my figures, because, as will be seen, they have been arrived at chiefly by induction. Statistical analysis, I may add, is a feature of social organization of the highest order, a state to which this country has not yet attained.

The guilds are of 35 different denominations, and comprise altogether, about 3,500 members, that is,

supposing every shopmaster to be enrolled. Giving to each master, on an average, two assistants, we have 10,500 as the number of hands engaged in industrial produce and distribution, which, with those depending on them, aged parents, wives, and families, would represent a section of the population numbering about 30,000. It is to be noted that but a small proportion of the kalfas are married men. Again, of the 35 guilds 22 are productive, and 13 are distributive. The productive guilds comprise about 2,000 master-workmen, who with their journeymen and apprentices, form a sum total of 6,000, more or less, here employed in handicraft pursuits.

Most of those engaged in sedentary occupations are stationary. But builders, masons, joiners, carpenters, and the like, may be considered itinerant workmen. With the exception of a few established in each large town, they follow the calls of work, not only within the province, but far beyond, into Greece, Macedonia, and North Albania.

In Janina, the capital of the province, the guilds and members respectively are as follows:—

PRODUCTIVE.

1. Bakers	53
2. Confectioners	6
3. Tailors (European clothes)	12
4. Ditto (Albanian ditto)	30
5. Cape makers	23
6. Shoemakers (European shoes)	46
7. Ditto (Albanian ditto)	93
8. Embroiderers	45
9. Dyers	6
10. Weavers	6
11. Beltmakers	40
12. Hairdressers	18
13. Watchmakers	6
14. Goldsmiths	18
15. Blacksmiths	25
16. Braziers	41
17. Tinworkers	10
18. Saddlers	5
19. Farriers	20
20. Gunsmiths	4
21. Coopers	11
22. Builders	27

DISTRIBUTIVE.

23. Druggists	12
24. Grocers	101
25. Coffee-houses	26
26. Butchers	33
27. Cookshops	25
28. Fishmongers	12
29. Wine sellers	57
30. Spirit ditto	15
31. Fruit ditto	11
32. Tobacconists	32
33. Ironmongers	13
34. Drapers	151
35. Auctioneers	10

The carriers are here entitled to a special notice. They form an important class in the country, numbering about 1,500, and employing some 2,000 animals, both horses and mules. Like carriers in general they are trustworthy, and careful of the goods committed to their charge. Their animals are for the most part of a very inferior description, capable, however, of doing 30 miles a-day with a load of from 2 cwt. to 3 cwt. on their back. For owing to the mountainous nature of the country, and the little progress made in road-making, there is no carriage transport in Epirus. The carrier's charge is fixed at 4*d.* a horse per league. But this regulation is little heeded, except for Government work. Private parties have to make their own bargains, and must generally pay at least half again as much. Hence there are few countries in which travelling or land-transport is so slow and so dear as in Epirus.

In this country but little capital is employed in industrial production; only what is required to provide materials and the manual tools of the individual workmen. There are no large factories to localize skill, no machinery, as the term is commonly used, to aid its efforts, and to increase its efficiency by mutiplying and perfecting its productive power. Whatever is done is done either by job, or in the workshop, or by domestic labour. The principle of combination is but little acted upon. In some of the larger undertakings, it is true, such as the building of a church, bridge, public edifice and the like, it is not unusual for several master-workmen to go shares in a joint contract. But more commonly

works for a daily wage, under the eye of a superintendent.

Domestic labour contributes largely to the industrial produce of the country. This is almost the exclusive province of the women, especially of the village women, who devote all the time they can spare from other duties to converting the raw material into commodities fit for use. According to localities, they work in silk, cotton, flax, or wool. They reel, card, spin, knit, weave, and sew, producing in every house enough for family use, and sometimes a good surplus for barter or sale. In the pastoral districts every cottage has its loom, which turns out strong flannels, cloth and rugs, together with small carpets, which often give evidence of no mean taste and skill. In all these works the Vallak women pre-eminently excel.

Having thus briefly reviewed in a general way the industrial position of the country, I shall now proceed to a consideration of some details respecting the condition of the operative, his mode of living, and the material comforts and conveniences within his reach. It will not be inapposite to begin with a glance at the means available for his early education.

The natural intelligence of the Epirotes is highly thought of throughout the Levant. As merchants, tradesmen, and artizans, they successfully make their way wherever they go, and hold their own against any competitors. They are distinguished in the medical profession; and some of the best literature in modern Greek, both in poetry and prose, has been contributed by Epirote authors. With all this natural intelligence they possess a strong desire for instruction, to meet which individual munificence has made large provision, as will appear from the following statements.

The custom has already been noticed, prevalent in this country, for young men of energy and enterprize, to seek abroad a wider field of action than they can find at home. Many of these adventurers succeed in business and rise to wealth. Like all mountaineers they cherish a deep affection for their native land; and to this affection are due all the educational and charitable endowments now existing in Epirus. The amount of benefactions bestowed and bequeathed for these ends

there is no contract at all; and every man employed commands admiration, and speaks eloquently for the patriotism of the enlightened Epirote.

Subjoined is a Return of the annual proceeds of the educational benefactions:—

	£
Janina	1,116
Other places	1,034
	2,150

The principal school in the country is the Zosimdan of Janina, so called from the founders, four brothers named Zosima, natives of the country, who, having amassed wealth abroad, bequeathed 18,000*l.* for the foundation and endowment of an educational establishment. Their will was executed in 1843; and in 1852 the school was opened. It has since been in uninterrupted operation; and may be said to answer the intentions of the founders. It consists of a gymnasium and an academy; in the former there are four classes, with an aggregate of 250 pupils, under 8 masters; in the latter, three classes 150 pupils, and 4 masters. The curriculum embraces Greek, ancient and modern, Latin, Italian, French, and Turkish; Mathematics, Geography, History, Theology, and the elements of Physics. The masters are in general, respectable, well-educated men. Some of them have studied in Germany, and deservedly enjoy the reputation of superior learning.

Preparatory to the Zosimdan, there are four primary schools in Janina, which are conducted on the Lancasterian system of mutual instruction. They also are endowed, and their united incomes amount to 320*l.* They have each a master and an assistant master; and the collective attendance varies between 500 and 600.

At both the Zosimdan and the primary schools the course of instruction is free of charge. The pupils belong without distinction to all creeds and classes; and the sons of the rich enjoy in them no advantage over the sons of the poor. Books are supplied gratis to the children of indigent parents; and two scholarships or exhibitions have been instituted in the Zosimdan which entitle the holders to a course of study, cost free, at the university of Athens.

While such provision has been made for male

education, the other sex has not been neglected. Two girls' schools, under competent mistresses, have for some years been established in Janina with, together, an average attendance of 200. They were founded and until lately were supported out of monastic property in Wallachia. The recent changes affecting that property threatened to arrest their functions, when the inhabitants, alive to the benefits these schools were diffusing, entered into arrangements among themselves which promise to guarantee the means of their support.

The schools in Janina pretend to the character of metropolitan. Compared with the other schools in the province they may, perhaps, be entitled to the distinction, although, in some of the other towns, primary education is well provided for; and there are female schools with good attendance at Metzovo, Arta, and Prevesa. This education of females, I would observe, is a great step in advance, seeing what Eastern views have for ages been on the subject.

But instruction is not here confined to the endowed establishments or the larger towns. Almost every Christian village has its school. Some of these schools do credit to the little communities that maintain them; other are of the humblest description, owing not only to the want of will but of means; so that they do not the less testify to the popular appreciation of instruction. In all these schools the teacher contracts with the village Council for a fixed sum per annum for so many years, which sum is raised by an assessment on the inhabitants. It is not in every country that poor peasants will voluntarily tax themselves to provide schooling for their children.

The facilities for instruction thus diffused through the country are not as fruitful in results as could be wished. Those who are in easy circumstances take full advantage of them for their children. But the poor are often driven by their necessities to put their sons and daughters to remunerative work at a tender age. With this, the most numerous class, attendance at school is, in general, precarious and interrupted after the age of 8 or 9; for, whether in town or country, the child is then supposed to be capable of helping either in field or in indoor work; and intellectual culture becomes a matter of secondary consideration, or is altogether lost sight of.

With reference to benefactions it is scarcely a digression here to observe that the patriotism which was so liberal in making provision for education was not forgetful of the sufferings of poverty or the infirmities of old age. The charities of private endowment in Epirus yield an income of 6,620*l.* a-year, of which 3,840*l.* belongs to Janina, the rest being distributed among three or four of the secondary towns. These proceeds are drawn by trustees, whose duty it is to expend them in maintaining hospitals and asylums for the aged and destitute, in providing marriage-portions for stated numbers of poor girls, in supporting orphans and foundlings, in occasional relief to indigent families and individuals, and in other pious and benevolent ways, including, in Janina, the salary of a medical officer for gratuitous attendance on the poor. Such excellent provisions are calculated to do much good in the way of succour and relief; and reduced tradesmen and artizans, as well as their families and orphans, are of the number of those who were intended to partake of their benefits.

On the subject of endowments it only remains to add that both the educational and the charitable funds are from time to time increased by new benefactions.

With a few exceptions, it is from the poorer classes and from the country villages that the skilled trades are recruited. It will be seen from the remarks on schools how far the boy is prepared by education to enter on his apprenticeship. The apprenticeship generally begins at the age of 12 or 13, and it is, in most cases, of a desultory and irregular kind. There is no indenture or legal deed upon which, as in England, a good round sum is paid down to the master by way of fee; on the contrary, it is he who pays. He takes the lad either by the day or for a year, according to a simple form of agreement with the guardians, paying for his services, in the the one case, a daily wage, which, beginning at 1*d.*, gradually reaches 3*d.* or 4*d.* at the end of the year, in the other case a sum varying, according to circumstances, from 1*l.* to 2*l.* When the contract for a year expires it may be renewed for a higher payment, or a fresh one be made with another master, or the apprentice may take to daily work, his wages rising with the increasing value of his services. But whether with or without yearly con-

tract, or partly with and partly without, he gets through four or five years of what is called apprenticeship, when he is considered a duly qualified artizan, and may, if he can find capital, set up as a master, open a shop, and enter his guild. Few, however, are so soon in a condition to set up for themselves; they consequently have to work on as journeymen, sometimes for years, sometimes for life.

Both masters and kalfas have to pay 3 per cent. income tax on their gross receipts, which is levied according to a quinquennial estimate given in by sworn assessors chosen by Government, two from each guild, against whose return there is no appeal.

In some of the sedentary trades the workmen of Epirus attain considerable skill. In gold embroidery they exhibit exquisite taste, and produce durable and highly finished work, which is celebrated all through the Levant, and is not unknown in the fashionable circles of the west. The workers in precious metals are growing into great repute; diamond setting is now executed here with great perfection, and the "Janina clasp" of alloyed silver has been in large demand both in London and elsewhere.

Not many years back sculpture in wood was a favourite art in this country, but now it is well-nigh extinct for want of encouragement. In this kind of work the screen and pulpit in the Cathedral of Janina are unique masterpieces; they are bold and original in design, and are of the highest order of execution.

In the rougher and the out-door work the operative is behind-hand. This is owing to no want of ability, but comes of his attempting to do too many things. He will not quit the rude ways of infant society—perhaps it would not yet serve his interests to do so—and adopt the principle of the division of labour, by which alone high proficiency is attainable. For the construction even of buildings that pretend to superiority the same man is often architect, mason, tiler, and joiner, working at each and all with his own hands; nay, more, he will help to make the furniture; and there are workshops here where one may order such dissimilar things as a fiddle, a ladder, and a tombstone. With such a system the wonder is that the work is as good as it is. At times, and in some things, it really merits commendation; the masonry in

cut stone is often solid and fairly executed; but in most most other things the builders' and joiners' work is wanting in durability and finish.

The several handicrafts are here, in great part, monopolized by particular races; nearly all the tin and plumber work is done by Jews; the Vallaks supply most of the silversmiths and coppersmiths; the best builders and carpenters come from a district called Konitza, and are supposed to be descendants of the aboriginal Epirotes; and all the blacksmiths are gipsies. A few words about these gypsies. Though of quick intelligence they are not highly skilled artificers; their women often do the part of strikers, and serve the bellows, which is precisely the same as that described by Herodotus. In the spring of the year numbers of them quit their homes in the towns and travel through the country, accompanied by their wives and families, and taking with them, loaded on donkeys, tents, tools, forges, and all needful gear. They halt at certain known stations, to which the country people of the neighbourhood, expecting their arrival, bring whatever work they want to be done.

The Musulmans reserve to themselves the business of farriers; but they do no more than pare the hoof and nail on the shoe. This is imported ready made from Salonica, and the nails are made in the place by gipsies.

As a general remark, the men of this country do not possess the muscular strength required for heavy work, and their tools are of feeble power, though good of their kind, for they are imported from England or Germany, and yet they show but little readiness to employ the simplest contrivances for economising animal power. In dealing with weights or resistance they use direct physical force; the aid of the pulley or windlass are but seldom called in, while hand-barrows and wheel-barrows are seen only on rare occasions. It is a singular fact, that during the fifty years of British occupation in the Ionian islands, not a single mechanical improvement crossed from Corfu to Epirus, if I may except the screw and the buckle, which found their way here some few years ago, and are now in limited use.

But it must be confessed that the work is on a par with the means and the requirements of the country.

There are now remaining but few of those wealthy proprietors who formerly sought out high-class artizans to minister to their taste and luxuries; and, passing to the other extreme, the rural classes are still at the very earliest stages of agricultural art; their implements are the same that were in use 3,000 years ago, being of the simplest kind, and made by the ploughman himself and the gipsy. I might mention other causes which here join in obstructing the progress and development of industrial art, but such investigations, though akin to the present inquiry, are not comprised in its immediate object. It is sufficient to state that the industrial art of the country is in many things behind-hand. But it is in conformity with the demand, which prefers inferior work, because cheap, to the well wrought, because expensive.

The profits of master workmen are, of course, according to the extent of their business; comparatively speaking, they as a rule do well. Journeymen are paid at nearly the same rate for all kinds of skilled labour, a difference being made only for the different degrees of individual ability. In Janina their wages vary from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a-day, which may be increased a fourth or a third by piece-work. Labourers get 1*s.* to 1*s* 2*d.* a day. The working-day is from sunrise to sunset, with half-an-hour at 9 o'clock and at mid-day, two hours in summer, and one hour all the rest of the year, for meals. The summer is counted from the 13th of May to the 12th of August. It is not uncommon for journeymen to engage with master workmen for fixed periods, generally of a year, on terms calculated on the value of their daily work. As a rule but little out-door work is done in winter, and the cost of labour is higher, because the migratory operatives usually spend that season at their village homes, thereby diminishing the supply of available hands in the towns and elsewhere.

The next consideration is, how far do the ordinary receipts from labour suffice for the necessaries and comforts of life? and first, as regards house accommodation.

In this country, working men, even of the humblest class, share, when married, the common desire to possess, every man his own house, and to have it all to himself and his family. The master artizans who are settled in towns live, for the most part, over their workshops;

their dwelling apartments correspond to their means, and as a rule are clean and well kept. Excepting a few among the rich, furniture is not much considered in these parts, owing in some measure to the prevailing love of out-door life, and to the influenee it exercises on domestic habits. This is particularly the case with the class in question, with whom the great object in life is, after providing for their sons and portioning off their daughters, to retire with a competence and spend their declining years in their native villages, where they generally have a house and bit of land, which it is their pride to improve and enlarge.

The journeymen's houses are of a humble kind, always situated in the least expensive quarters, and built of the cheapest materials the place affords. Some of them have but one, others two, and more rarely three rooms, all on the ground floor. The best of them, with a small back-yard, may be bought, even in Janina, for 25*l.* or 30*l.* They are for the most part kept clean; but they contain scarcely any furniture beyond a chest, a board which answers the purpose of a table for meals, and a few simple cooking utensils. The family sleep in their day clothes on mats spread on the floor, with boards between when the floor is of a cold or damp material, and they have capotes or country wollen rugs for a covering. According to the rule of the East they go to rest soon after dark and rise at dawn.

In the towns itinerants and unmarried journeymen who do not live with their relations lodge, sometimes in khans, but more frequently in mandras, which are a sort of small barrack, built round a court-yard, with one entrance from the street. To each mandra there is a cook-house, a well, and other conveniences in common: the huts are well but cheaply built, and consist of one or two small rooms on the ground floor. If taken by the year the rent is from 18*s.* to 36*s.*; for a shorter term the rate is higher. Very often several men will club together and take a hut among them. Mandras, I should observe, are supposed to be for the exclusive use of men.

Dress.

In the larger towns the Christians of sedentary crafts are gradually adopting the European style of dress,

which, if not more convenient than that of the country, is, at any rate, regarded as the emblem of a higher civilization. Clothes of the European fashion here cost about fifty per cent. more than in England, quality being the same, for the material is imported, and the making-up is comparatively expensive; but they are taken great care of by the wearers, they are not always made to conform to the changes of fashion, and therefore they last a long time.

Ready-made clothes of second-rate quality are sometimes imported by casual speculators from Italy and Germany. As they must be quickly disposed of they are sold cheap, and are readily bought up.

The out-door operatives, such as masons and builders, together with carpenters, joiners, and the like, wear the dress of the country, which in fashion is the same as that which was worn here in very remote antiquity. The material is always of wool, woven in the village looms, and the clothes are made by the female relatives of the wearer. Though somewhat rough, they are easy, suitable, and lasting. In cold weather an outside coat is added of thick white country cloth, with long loose pile on the inside. From this pile it is called flocatta, and the manufacture of it is peculiar to the Vallaks. A thick capote of mingled wool and goats' hair is here the indispensable possession of every man and boy: it is very durable, and serves for a protection against sun, cold, and rain, while with many it is the only addtional covering by night.

As to the fustanella, or white cotton kilt, it is every year becoming more scarce, even among the Albanians, who used to take pride in it as the special characteristic of their national costume.

The female dress corresponds to that of the men. In most of the towns the European fashion has gained ground with the better class of Christians, and also lower down the scale, in conformity with the changes adopted by the men. With the village women and those in the towns who adhere to old ways, the dress is of the same material as that of the men, the fashion as antique. But though wanting perhaps in grace, the women's garments are well suited to the climate and to the nature of the wearers' occupations, both in and out of door. Like those of the men they are always home-made, but, family

circumstances permitting, they are sometimes of bought material, and ornaments are indulged in, especially of the precious metals, which go to make part of the dowry.

Diet.

In the matter of diet the workmen follow the rule of the country, which, with the Christians, is temperance and frugality. All, even the poorest, begin the day with a finjan of strong black coffee without sugar—it may be had for a halfpenny—the finjan holding about as much as an egg-cup. At nine o'clock something light is taken, a bit of bread and it may be a few olives; at mid-day a more substantial meal, and again after sunset, when the day's work is over. These meals can be got all ready in cook-shops, of which there are numbers in every town. A savoury mess can be had for 4*d.* or 5*d.*, with a drink of country wine for a penny more. But it is only the master-workmen, and not even all of these, who allow themselves such good nourishment. The journeymen and labourers live chiefly on Indian corn and rye bread, helped out with cheese, olives, or strong tasting vegetables, such as onions, leeks, and garlic. Black coffee is here the great luxury of workmen, as it is, indeed, with all classes in the country—they are continually sipping it, but always in small quantities at a time; ten or a dozen finjans in the course of the day is no unusual allowance. In the East a man will treat his friend to a finjan of coffee, as one would in England to a glass of wine or a pint of porter.

Smoking is a universal habit in Epirus, and the workmen indulge in it as well as others; the tobacco is of a light quality, is free from adulteration, and is smoked in small paper cigarettes, which every one makes for himself. The cheapest kind costs about 1*s.* 4*d.* a pound, retail price; the best about 2*s.* 4*d.*

Two of the effects which result from the preponderance of the female sex in this country are here worth noticing. The one is an excessive amount of hoarding; the other the facility with which young men can improve their pecuniary means by marriage. The birth of a daughter is here regarded by most parents as a misfortune; for, whatever her personal qualities when she grows up, without money she has no chance of ever

being established in life. Her arrival in the world is consequently the signal to the whole family to enter on a course of rigid economy with a view to providing her a portion; and the sacrifices and self-denial practised on her account are worthy of all praise. Such is the success of these privations, accompanied as they are with ceaseless striving to earn, gain, and save, that parents who have always passed for indigent and penniless, will sometimes offer a fortune of 100*l.* or 150*l.* with a daughter; and very lucky they consider themselves if they can even then find a journeyman for a son-in-law: for there is never any want of bidders against them in the market. These terms are not altogether inapposite, for marriage in this country savours very much of the auction and the mart.

As the wife's fortune is always at the disposal of the husband, he may, if a prudent man, employ it for the advancement of his trade and business; and, in point of fact, many journeymen do in this way become masters, and many assistants, heads of establishments.

In this review of the condition of the operative notice must be taken of the number of week days which the Eastern Church withdraws from labour. They now amount to forty-eight; formerly, I am told, they were more numerous; and there seems to be a belief that with time they will become fewer. For the working classes, it is said, are calling in question this ecclesiastical prohibition, saying that it curtails their secular advantages, without bestowing any adequate compensation in a spiritual way. These holydays, they urge, are spent at the best in idleness; but by many in a way injurious to individual morality and to the general interests of society. Whether it is that the Church has doubts of her ability to sustain the inhibitions in question by convincing arguments, or that she is unwilling to provoke a contest with the awakening intelligence of the laity, the idea seems to prevail that she is less rigorous than of old in enforcing the disputed points. And in proportion as she relaxes, labour encroaches on the proscribed days.

Epirus, from its geographical position and natural capabilities, is well adapted for industry and commerce. It has a long sea-board with some good ports and roadsteads, and it lies within easy reach of foreign markets inquiring for its produce. The coast-lands and the valley

plains of the interior are of prime quality, capable of yielding a great variety of returns in abundance. The rivers are not navigable, but they offer in their upper courses a vast amount of motive power for industrial purposes, while further down, they might be made available for canals and irrigation. The climate is good, though hot in summer and cold in winter; and if at any season, or in any place, it is not good, the causes are such as could be removed by drainage, or embankment, or by attention to common sanitary precautions within the domestic circle. Finally, the nearest port of Epirus is only an hour and a-half's steaming from the city of Corfu, which is but four days' postal distance from England.

That all these natural advantages should still continue to be so little productive is in great measure owing to the scantiness of the population, which is not more than a fourth of what the soil could well maintain. A large proportion of the land is consequently lying fallow; and but little is done in turning to account the many resources and capabilities with which nature has gifted the country; and which only await the touch of industry and science to become abundant sources of wealth.

Now, this very deficiency of population, and this call for industry and science, would seem, with the advantages just enumerated, to make up a strong array of inducements for the British emigrant, as well the artizan as the agriculturist. But there are considerations on the other side which, in my opinion, more than countervail them. In certain crafts, a steady workman or two might succeed in some of the larger towns, like the few Italians who are established here as shoemakers and tailors. But if Englishmen were to come to this country in anything like large numbers, their presence might be regarded with jealousy, not only by their neighbours but in higher quarters. As to the inhabitants, the various races of which they are composed, though differing in other respects, agree in a feeling of exclusiveness, which would soon make the new comers painfully sensible that they were in a land of aliens. I do not care to follow out this part of the subject in all its details. It is easy to conceive, in a general way, what embarrassments would ensue to immigrants from living in contact with institutions which they would take long to under-

stand, and from association with peoples of different habits of thought, and of a different code of morality. I must, however, state, that they would be well nigh cut off from all religious instruction, for there is no Protestant minister in the country, and only one of the Roman Catholic Church. As to their children, they might have the benefit of the endowed and other schools; but they would be apt, as they grew up, to imbibe feelings and ideas, and acquire habits very different from those of the home type. I do not lay much stress on the difficulties arising from the mixture and variety of the languages, because, with some application, they could by most in time be overcome; nor would the want of a bank or some kindred institution at the first, perhaps, be much felt. The immigrant might derive some confidence and support, both moral and material, from the British Consular agencies in the country; but they would not always be at his elbow; and the protection which they can afford is clearly limited and defined.

Many other observations suggest themselves to the same effect, which it would be superfluous to set down; but, taking everything into account, I do not think that Epirus at present offers a favourable field for British immigration.

I shall now endeavour to supply the additional particulars called for in the Circular despatch of the 7th of June last in connection with the present subject. And, first, with regard to labour.

In all the non-sedentary crafts, and in unskilled labour, an Englishman would do at least twice the work of an Epirote, while the quality of his work would, beyond all comparison, be superior. Coming here, however, as a stranger, his abilities, because untried, would be unknown, so that he could not as a journeyman obtain at first more than the highest rate of current wages, which, as has already been shown, is about 2*s.* 6*d.* a-day. Working by the piece, where his superior skill and dispatch would tell, he might double this sum; and, supposing that he were habitually so to work, his regular earnings may be set down at 5*s.* a-day. Deducting Sundays and holidays, there are here 265 working days in the year, which gives an average of 22 a-month; say 20, for some allowance must be made for illness, and other personal

causes. Now, on the extreme supposition that he had constant piece-work for every available day in the year, and that he was able and willing to keep to it, he could thus earn 5*l.* a-month, or 60*l.* a-year. If it be objected that he would not be amenable to the prohibition respecting holidays, made by a church to which he does not belong, the answer is, that though this is true in principle, in practice it is generally found that in such matters immigrants soon fall in with local usages. In most cases they are obliged to do so; as, for instance, when working in shops which on holidays would be closed; or with masters or assistants who would be away. If his work was of a kind that he could take it with him, and carry it on at home, his assiduity might last for a while, but in time it would be sure to relax under the force of example. I think, therefore, that I have touched the utmost limit in setting down the the English artizan's earnings as a journeyman in this country at 5*l.* a-month.

This point being settled, the next consideration is, what is here the purchase power of 5*l.*

Beginning with food, subjoined is a list of prices current of those articles which enter most into daily consumption:—

		Piastres.	p.		*s.*	*d.*
Bread	Per oke	1	25	Per pound	0	1
Rice	„	3	20	„	0	3
Beef	„	3	0	„	0	2½
Mutton	„	4	20	„	0	4
Eggs	Dozen	2	20	Dozen	0	5
Cheese	Per oke	6	0	Per pound	0	5
Green coffee	„	10	0	„	0	8
Sugar	„	6	20	„	0	5
Wine	„	3	0	Per pint	0	2½
Rakee	„	9	0	„	0	7
Tobacco	„	20	0	Per pound	1	4

1 oke dry measure = 2¾ lbs.; 1 oke liquid measure = 1¼ qt.; 1 piastre = 2*d.*; 40 paras = 1 piastre.

The meat is not as nutritious as English meat; mutton is that which is most in use; beef is seldom to be had, partly owing to a prejudice against it, handed down from Paganism, which prevails more or less with all races of the inhabitants, except the Jews. For the same reason cow's milk is but little used for food, and

neither cheese nor butter is made from it, sheep and goat's milk being preferred. The butter sold in the market is intended only for cookery, as it is not made with a sufficient regard to cleanliness to be put on the table. Even before going into the kitchen it must pass through a purifying process. It costs this year 12 piastres the oke (= 9½*d.* a pound). The cheese of some districts is very good. With a little care excellent pork might be had, for there is a superior breed of pigs in the country, small and finely proportioned, somewhat like the Berkshire. The Eastern prejudice against swine's flesh is, however, almost general here, so that but for the demands of foreign markets the animal would be driven from the farm-yard, and left to run wild. The country abounds in excellent game of great variety, both large and small; but it is not much prized by the natives for food, and the little that is brought to the market is sold very cheap, a hare 6*d.*, a brace of wild duck, woodcocks, or partridges 10*d.*, and so for other things.

Fish, both salt and fresh-water, is very dear owing to the heavy Government charges to which the fisheries are subject.

Fowls are everywhere abundant, and geese, turkeys, and ducks in certain districts. Though nominally cheap they are really dear, for unless fattened at home they are hardly worth putting on the table.

The country wine is for the most part of an inferior kind, very light, and soon turning to vinegar. It is, nevertheless, much used by the natives, who seem to relish it, even in its most acid state. A superior wine, both wholesome and palatable, is imported from Macedonia, and retailed at the price above marked. I am of opinion that this wine is fully as nutritious and strengthening as beer, while it is much better suited to the climate.

Rakee is the name here given to the spirit distilled from the marc of grapes; it is in fact the same thing as brandy. It may be had in its native state, without preparation or admixture of any kind, unless perhaps water, when it costs about 8*d.* a quart, or else rectified and seasoned with mastic, pistaccia, jeutiscus, which improves its flavour and imparts to it certain stomachic qualities. Thus prepared it gives to water a milky opal colour, and

sufficiently diluted it makes a wholesome and refreshing beverage. Its retailed price is above given.

Refined beef-root sugar, imported from Trieste, is the sort chiefly used is this country. Tea is here known only as a rare medicine.

Vegetables are plenty and moderately cheap; they include many kinds in common use at home. The potatoe was introduced here some years ago; it has succeeded but indifferently, owing, perhaps, to improper cultivation; and the poor people have not taken to it at all.

All cooking is here done with charcoal, which costs between 5*s.* and 6*s.* the load of 2 cwt. Firewood about 1*s.* 6*d.* a load.

From these observations some idea may be formed of the resources of the country in regard to provisions, and of the general run of retail prices. This information, useful to all, chiefly concerns housekeepers and heads of families, for a single man would be able in the towns to get all his meals in cookshops, which perhaps would be for him the cheapest as well as the most convenient way of living. A good meat dinner, with wine, might thus be had for 9*d.*, and allowing as much more for his other meals collectively, his daily food would cost 1*s.* 6*d.*, which, with occasional extras and tobacco, would be increased to say 2*s.*, equal to 3*l.* a month.

Under the head of clothes, supposing them to be well taken care of, and that the wearer's occupation was not of a kind to subject them to much wear and tear, the minimum charge would be 6*l.* a-year, including washing and mending.

In the matter of lodging, a room of moderate dimensions, in a well situated, respectable house, may here be had for 5*s.* a month, unfurnished; furnished, simply, but suitably, for 7*s.* 6*d.* The system of letting lodgings or dividing houses, is of recent introduction into this country, and has not yet extended beyond Janina. In all the other towns a new comer would be obliged, either to lodge in a khan or a mandra, places not suited to a respectable English operative, or else to rent or purchase a house. The rent would be 8*l.* or 10*l.* a year; the purchase 70*l.* or 80*l.*

Confining my observations to the case of a single man coming to Janina, it would thus appear that his

monthly expenditure for the first necessaries would be—

	£	s.	d.
Food	3	0	0
Clothes	0	10	0
Lodging	0	7	6
	3	17	6

out of 5*l.*, the maximum, as I have shown, which as a journeyman he could earn. I suppose the maximum earnings and the minimum expenses; the real account would of course lie somewhere between both, and every remove from either extreme would be a deduction from the credit side.

It is true that as regards the individual expenses of the workman, they would, strictly speaking, be diminished if he had a wife and family. His food would cost less because it would be cooked at home; and washing, mending, and other things would be done in the house which would otherwise have to be paid for. If they were sons they might by their labour add something to the father's earnings; and an industrious wife might find time with her needle, or in other ways, to contribute her quota to the family stock. On the other hand there would be a greater number of persons to feed and clothe, which would perhaps more than balance the account.

So far as I can learn, the prime expenses per month of an unmarried artizan in England, taking the average of the large towns, would be—

	£	s.	d.
Food	3	0	0
Clothes	1	0	0
Lodging	0	10	0
	4	10	0

Consequently, while labour is more remunerative in England than in Epirus, the abstract purchase power of money is the same for food, less in respect to other necessaries.

The next subject of inquiry is the power of preserving health by an intending emigrant. On this point much depends here, as elsewhere, on diet; in respect to which I cannot do better than transcribe the military ration, in fixing which it may be assumed that both experience and medical science were consulted.

	Lbs.	oz.	dr.
Bread	2	1	0
Meat (mutton)	0	9	0
Beans	0	7	0
Rice	0	2	0
Butter	0	0	6
Salt	0	0	10
	3	4	0

This is the ration for five days in the week. On Sundays and Thursdays it is changed for the following:—

	Lbs.	oz.	dr.
Bread	2	1	0
Rice	0	12	0
Butter	0	1	13
Sugar	0	2	8
	3	1	5

That this dietary, slightly changed according to place and season, was well studied with reference both to climate and health, is shown by the condition of the Turkish troops who, in bodily vigour and powers of endurance, would not suffer by comparison with any men in Europe. Bread, it will be observed, is the staple of their diet; it is, like the household bread of the country, of wheaten seconds, and, though somewhat dark coloured, it is well tasted, sound, and wholesome.

White or first flour bread can be had only by importing the flour from Trieste. But it is used by very few in the country; and it is expensive, for the cost of carriage alone to Janina is at the rate of 10*s.* a sack of 1 cwt.

Rice forms part of almost every meal with the natives, and, made into pilaff, it is one of the favourite dishes of the East.

A stranger on first arrival in any country would do well not to attempt a sudden change of diet, but, avoiding excess, to keep as far as he can to that which he was accustomed to in his native land. A change of climate, however extreme, does not at once effect a change in the habit of body and appetite of a healthy person. This is the work, more or less gradual, of time; and nature keeps pace with the process in suggesting the proper modifications of food. It has already to some extent been shown what are the resources of Epirus in the

matter of food; and it will be seen that there would be no difficulty in making a safe choice from the local supplies. The Englishman will get no malt liquor here, unless imported at a high price; but there is light draught wine, which he would find a healthy and agreeable substitute. Of rakee, or country brandy, there is no scarcity, or of imported rum. Excess in either produces the same effects here as elsewhere. Of fruit there is always an abundant and varied supply. The caution may perhaps appear superfluous, to avoid the vitiated taste, too common here, of eating even with preference, unripe fruit, which freely indulged in, especially in those seasons when the system is enfeebled and the stomach deranged by alternate fasts and feasts, is the fertile cause of disease in a variety of forms.

In regard to clothing great care is needed. The temperature in the interior has an annual range of 100° Fahrenheit. The greatest heat is from the middle of July to the middle of September; the greatest cold is in December and January; and the year may be said to be equally divided between summer and winter, with considerable variations in both seasons. Owing to the proximity of mountain ranges the transitions from heat to cold are sometimes very sudden, especially in the beginning and end of summer, when currents of chilled, rarefied air descend from the higher levels, and sweep in eddying courses over the plains. For these reasons woollen clothing is at all seasons advisable. None other is used by the natives; indeed, the country people never make any change, but wear the same clothes all the year round. A peculiarity of the climate requires that the lower limbs should be kept warm. This is everywhere carefully attended to, so that in the dog days the villager thickly swathes his legs and thighs in wool, while even in the keenest cold of winter his neck and breast are exposed.

The limits to exertion are here narrower than in England; and in summer, by reason of the greater heat, exhaustion would more speedily ensue. From the middle of June to the middle of September an immigrant from a more temperate climate could not, without risk, carry on out-door labour throughout the day. During that period he ought to keep under cover from 10 A.M. until 4 P.M. Even the native workmen, as has been noticed,

are allowed two hours' intermission in the hottest part of the year. In winter, also, open-air work is often interrupted by the extreme severity of the cold. With these exceptions as to out-door employments, an Englishman might here engage in labour all the year round, as at home.

Personal conduct has the same relation here as in other countries to health-preserving powers; temperance and regularity conducing to health and longevity, dissoluteness and excess to disease and premature death.

With respect to the other points on which information is wanted in connection with this subject, as they have for the most part been anticipated in the preceding pages, a brief notice of them will here suffice.

In Janina a working man could find healthy lodgings, and within a half-mile radius from his work. In the other towns he would have to hire or purchase a house. The dwelling-rooms in this country are generally well ventilated. Main or street drainage is as yet but imperfectly carried out here; but, as a rule, the inhabitants of the towns are cleanly in their houses, and careful to prevent the accumulation of miasmatic dirt on their premises. As regards household refuse this is easily done, when there is a back garden, by means of a pit which, when filled, is covered over and a fresh one dug; when there is not a back garden some convenient place is sure to be hard by where the refuse is discharged.

There is no over-crowding, unless it may be at times in the mandras; but even then the air is not poisoned, for the doors are open all day and the windows all day and night too. Even if shut, they fit so badly that they but partially exclude the outer air. Moreover, the atmosphere in these mountain regions is so light and mutable that it quickly carries off all impurities. Soil and position being favourable, the sanitary condition of the houses here is in accordance with the domestic habits of the occupants, varying with the degree of attention bestowed upon order and cleanliness. I may, therefore, state in general terms that an Englishman coming here would encounter little or no risk from the dangers in question, provided that he himself, in his household arrangements, did not depart from the well-known rules of health.

The quality of the work executed in this country varies according to the particular craft. The workmen naturally possess a delicate finger and a light touch, combined with a certain degree of taste in minute things. Hence, as I have mentioned further back, the gold embroidery of Janina is celebrated for its delicacy, richness, and beauty of design. The tailors and shoemakers excel in fineness of stitching, but the work is wanting in durability; this may, however, be owing to the quality of the thread or materials. In some kinds of work the silversmiths have attained considerable proficiency, and are still improving; and diamond-setting and jewellery, at one time here brought to great perfection but subsequently long neglected, are now reviving, and promise to recover and even surpass their former excellence.

As has already been stated, the operatives of this country are backward in works of construction, whether in wood, iron, or stone. And it has been explained that their deficiency in this respect is in great measure owing to a disregard of the principle of the division of labour, together with a somewhat obstinate adherence to old ways of doing things, and a repugnance—I may almost say a dread—of adopting innovations.

Some of the artizans take a pride in their work, and put their character into it; but this is not the rule, and I regret being obliged to add that while all hold out for high wages, but few make a stand against bad work. The operative classes here, I have much pleasure in recording, can boast of men whose work can be depended upon as good from the sense of honour they have in executing it; but their number is small compared with those who seem indifferent or insensible to the credit which such honesty commands. All that can be said in behalf of these workmen is, that they are very deficient in education, that the local standard of morality is low, and that they have long been subjected to powerful influences of a demoralizing nature. And these influences continue to act, although every day's experience shows that skill and fidelity meet their reward in every branch of industry—in higher wages to the journeymen, in extension of business to the shop-owner. Until higher principles obtain with these classes, their skill, their position, and their prospects must remain stationary,

and the workmen cannot hope to enjoy the confidence either of the public or of their employers. Such must everywhere be the results of lightly regarding the obligations of labour, and of attempts to evade the standing principle of giving a good day's work for a good day's pay.

In conclusion, I would observe that the laws which regulate the relations between capital and labour, springing as they do from principles inherent in the nature of things, must be the same in every country. Like all economic laws they meet with resistance in their operation—a resistance in every case prompted by one or other of the many false notions to which a shortsighted or mistaken idea of self-interest gives birth. The want of harmonious action, of a sense of common interest between master and man, may, in every country, be measured by the degree to which these false notions prevail; and it will be found that they prevail most where the enlightening influences are least felt, of moral and intellectual education.

(Signed) R. STUART.

Janina, November 1870.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		Purchase Powet.
	Local.	British.	
	Per Month. Piastres.	Per Month. £	
Labour	575	5	1·16
Provisions	345	3	1·00

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—English diet would not be unsuitable; bread good; meat, middling; fruit, and vegetables varied, abundant, and good; no tea nor beer; but excellent coffee, and good wine as cheap as beer.

Clothing should always be woollen; light in summer, but required very warm in winter.

Lodging.—In Janina, the capital town, healthy lodgings can be had within half-a-mile radius of work for 5*s.* a-month unfurnished; 7*s.* 6*d.* furnished; in the other

towns it would be necessary to rent a house at say 6*l.* or 8*l.* a-year; or buy one at 70*l.* or 80*l.*

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—In embroidery, rich, beautiful, and durable. In tailoring and shoemaking, moderately good. Coppersmiths make good cooking utensils, nothing else. Silversmiths middling, but improving. Jewellery and diamond setting very good. The work of builders, masons, joiners, carpenters, and blacksmiths, very second rate, wanting in solidity, durability, and finish.

KOORDISTAN.

Consul Taylor to Earl Granville.—(Received December 10.)

My Lord, *Erzeroom, November 5, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour now to forward a Report forming inclosure to this despatch, on the condition of the industrial classes, as called for in Mr. Otway's Circular of the 7th June last.

I have, &c.
(Signed) J. G. TAYLOR.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Taylor on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Koordistan.

THE figures in this Report relative to population and profits of labour must be accepted rather as useful approximates than as strictly reliable data. For in this country, statistics, as regards the artisan and industrial classes, are absolutely unknown, while the census, cadastre, and official returns are so negligently and loosely compiled as to render them perfectly useless for the purpose of judging of, or guiding the wealth of the nation.

The data I give are merely the results of constant travel, careful inquiry, and research, noted day by day during an eight years' residence in the vilaiets of Erzeroom and Diarbekr, composing the Consular district of Koordistan.

Without in these countries, as stated, any worthy published returns relative to the social condition or economy of the people and Government, I am sorry I can claim no more credit for my information than that attaching to care and assiduity in collecting my materials regularly, and checking them whenever possible or useful, by a comparison with the loose and meagre information afforded by the Government archives and officials, and the more reliable experience of landed

proprietors, merchants, artisans, and farmers I have, from time to time, consulted on the different matters contained in this paper.

The imperfect Turkish Census of 1844, as quoted by M. V. Heuschling, an official of the Belgian Ministry of the Interior, in his "Empire de la Turquie," published in 1860, gives, as the population for the districts of Erzeroom, Diarbekr, Kharput, 1,700,000 souls. From all I have been able to collect, the actual amount in 1868 was 2,314,000, namely—

In the Erzeroom Vilayet	1,230,700
In the Diarbekr Vilayet, including Kharput ..	1,083,500
Total	2,314,000

Divided into the following races and creeds:—

	Turks.	Koords.	Christians.	Jews.	Yezids.	Kezil Bash Koords.	Arabs.	Tchetchens.	Terrek Iman, a Shiah sect.
Erzeroom districts .	272,500	357,000	411,000	1,200	2,000	158,000	...	...	29,000
Diarbekr districts .	30,000	391,000	108,000	1,000	8,000	12,500	118,000	15,000	...
Kharput districts .	140,000	100,000	130,000	...	...	30,000	...	...	...
Totals	442,500	848,000	649,000	2,200	10,000	200,500	118,000	15,000	29,000

Forming 362,500 families, not including Arabs and Tchetchens, and 6,000 people who have no occupation or ostensible means of living, 139,000 in all, of, taking a reasonable average, 6 people to one house, who exercise the different trades or occupations in the proportions shown in the subdivison below, which also notes average number of people they support.

Able-bodied Men exercising Trades, &c.		Working Adults helping the same.	Remaining Members of Family, and Women and Children.
Hand-loom works .	11,700	6,000	52,500
Millers	4,300	500	21,000
Artisans . ..	8,000	2,000	38,000
Jew pedlars ..	2,000	.. .. ..	10,000
People in Government employ ..	7,000	.. .. ..	35,000
Moollas, proprietors, shop-keepers, and small traders ..	19,000	.. .. ..	98,500
Total ..	52,000	8,500	255,000
Agriculturists ..	200,000	200,000	800,000
Pastorals ..	109,800	109,800	439,200
Totals ..	365,500	318,300	1,494,200

Hand-Loom Weavers.—There are 11,700 hand-looms, employing the same number of men, and 6,000 youths under 16 years of age; although, generally speaking, one man is sufficient to keep his loom working. The town weavers are all Christian, those in the country seven-eights Christian, the rest Moslem. They maintain among them 52,500 persons. Their earnings vary in different places, but not always according to the quality or value of the stuffs they weave; for instance, at Bitlis, the weaver of coarse cotton cloths earns more than the Diarbekr or Kharput silk weavers, who produce the elegant but more expensive stuffs worn by the affluent. The looms are the property of the workmen, but the latter, in towns, are employed by capitalists, who give them the raw material and afterwards pay them a stipulated sum per piece, when returned in a manufactured state. They advance them, during periods of scarcity, loans to enable them to time over hard times, till prices regain their normal state. It results, therefore,—owing to variable prices, improvidence of the borrowers and other causes, affecting the demand for their manufactures, —that they are always in the power of their employers, practically, in fact, slaves to the capitalist. Thus the weavers, while constantly in debt, have no fixed wages which they can reckon on as their own or constant employment, as the former depends upon their skill, industry, or pecuniary relations towards the employer,

and the latter, upon the frequent fluctuations occurring in the price of, or the demand for, their productions. Generally speaking, however, in the towns, where alone all the richer good, such as silks and tissues, are woven, the silk weavers find employment, at tolerably fixed rates, during 200 days in the year, working, on an average, eight hours a-day in winter and ten in summer; and cotton weavers, or half cotton and silk, during 290 days. But the looms working rich and varied materials, in comparison with those weaving coarser stuffs, are limited and yearly decreasing, owing to a change in the tastes of the former customers for those species of goods, deterioration in their manufacture, and the more economical mode of living practised now, as compared with former years.

Their earnings, it is true, are nominally higher, but the inconstancy of the employment reduces them to the same level nearly as those working coarser stuffs, although requiring greater skill and care. In the country where coarse cotton cloths and bombazines, used as articles of dress by the poor only are woven, the loom is idle half the year round. The number of hand-weaving looms is :—

In towns, whole silk	900
„ half silk and cotton	1,000
Whole cotton cloth weavers in towns ..	1,560
Whole cotton cloth weavers in country ..	8,240
Totals	11,700

Their earnings during the number of days they are employed in the different towns where this industry is exercised, are :—

	Silk Weavers in Towns.						Cotton Weavers in Towns.			
	First Class.				Second Best Class.					
	Pias.	£	s.	d.	Pias.	£	s.	d.	Pias.	£	s.	d.
Bitlis	..				..				2,200 to 2,800	= 20 16 4 to 25 9 1		
Diarbekr ..	1,800	= 16	7	3	1,200	= 10	18	2	1,200	10	18	2
Kharput . ..	2,000	18	3	7	..				1,500	13	12	8
Mardin	..				..				1,200	10	18	2

Apprentice boys (one to a loom) aiding the weaver, and who are employed by the silk and cotton weavers in

town only, receive 290 piastres per annum (2*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*), and cotton weavers in the country earn throughout on an average 600 piastres (5*l.* 9*s.* 1*d.*) in this labour throughout the whole year, or its value rather, in grain, as, unlike the town weavers, they seldom from the poverty of their customers receive cash payments for their work. They also never manufacture on their own account for subsequent sale or for capitalists, but are dependent upon the occasional wants of the villagers, who give them a certain weight of native cotton, previously spun into coarse twist by their females, and receive back the same weight in cloth. But there is this difference in the circumstances of the country weaver, that other members of the family engage in agriculture and so increase the general stock, which is not the case in towns where the other working male members of the family can only earn a trifling sum as domestic servants. The countryman, too, either sows his grain himself, or purchases it on the spot at lower prices than it can be got in towns. The silk weaving and cotton looms in towns cost 400 piastres (3*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*), and the country cotton looms 200 piastres (1*l.* 16*s.* 4*d.*). Each is subject to a yearly duty—"tamgha"—of 2½ per cent. on the value of the goods manufactured. The greater part of these goods are coarse, plain cloths, or common striped nankeen, manufactured in small pieces, sufficient only to provide one dress, and it is in this latter branch of manufacture that the town and large village weavers—not to be confounded with the country weavers—find the steadiest prices and most constant employment. For, as stated further back, a variety of causes have operated to curtail the use of the more expensive native silk fabrics that have been more or less replaced by cheaper foreign imported imitations, flimsier than the original, but better suited to the altered condition of the great body of consumers.

The average yearly gains of weavers, taking the average earned in the towns noted, are 1,625 piastres, or 14*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.* per annum for each able-bodied man. The yearly expenses for himself and a family of five are—

	Pias.	£ s. d.
6 quarters of wheat	1,500	= 13 12 8
Rent	200	1 16 4
Clothes	300	2 14 6
Meat	200	1 16 4
Taxes	60	0 10 10
Total	2,260	20 10 8

This is priced as wheat now is in the Erzeroom districts, taking the very lowest scale upon which a family can live; against this is to be placed the total gains of all the members of the family, namely, as above—

	Pias.	£ s. d.
One man gains	1,625	= 14 14 6
His wife, sewing or spinning ..	300	2 14 6
Earnings of one boy, 15 years old .	290	2 12 8
Total	2,215	20 1 8

The amount quoted for expences is dependent upon the fluctuation of the grain market, and of course lowered when wheat stands at 100 and 150 piastres (18*s.* to 1*l.* 7*s.* 3*d.*) at which it is sold three years out of five in the autumn, when every one lays in his stock for the year. The average prices of wheat in Erzeroom and Diarbekr from 1863 to 1868, were per quarter,—

	£ s. d.
At Erzeroom	1 1 11
At Diarbekr	1 12 4

For 1869 and 1870 prices stood—

	Pias.	£ s. d.
At Diarbekr	90	= 0 16 4
At Erzeroom	250	2 5 5

So that, under ordinary circumstances, the Erzeroom weaver, who always has a cow or few goats, that supply the family with milk and butter, would have a balance in his favour every year of 6*l.* 11*s.* 7*d.* which, if hoarded, would render him independent of his employer for loans; but cheaper times bring with them other wants, and the sum is expended in a better style of living, dress, and other luxuries denied him during scarcity. As a whole, then, if not heavily in debt, they are never in a position to enable them to improve their condition. Therefore it is that their employment and mode of life have

become invariable heirlooms, handed down to them from preceding generations, and they never seem to have improved upon one or the other. The quality of the goods has been noted before, and their mode of life, as will be seen, is hardly so good as that of the poorest agriculturalist. All work is carried on in the weaver's dwelling-house, where the raw material is sent to him by his employer. The houses they inhabit in Erzeroom, generally speaking, consist of a small cow-house and two rooms made of mud and rough stones, with walls 3 feet thick on the ground floor, all communicating one with the other, covered with a heavy earthen roof, also 3 feet thick, laid on large bare pine poles. The walls, as the ceilings, are bare and pierced with small glazed windows which, in winter, are pasted over with oiled paper to exclude cold. Ventilation there is none, and the previously stifling atmosphere is increased by the only means available to the poorer classes for warming their dwellings. Owing to the absence of coal, and the scarcity and consequent exorbitant demands of wood and charcoal, this is done by burning cakes called "tezek"—made of dried cow and horse dung, collected during summer and winter in a trough which exists at the side of every house, mixed with straw,—in deep circular holes sunk in the ground, in which also the greater part of the family food is cooked. Such a contrivance—called a "tundoor"—is insufficient in itself to provide the necessary warmth during the penetrating cold of this country; so over the tundoor is placed an open frame-work of wood, covered with a large thick woollen quilted cloth, large enough to extend several feet all round. The different members of the family, when not employed, sit under this quilt during the day, wrapping it about them as well as they can, so as to concentrate the heat of the tundoor as much as possible about their extremities. At night the father, mother, and children sleep round the tundoor in the same place. The odours exhaled from the wretched cow-house, with the stench, filth, and closeness engendered in apartments so tenanted, is indiscribable, and in the absence of drains, proper closets, and ventilation of any kind, would decimate the country, were it not for the extraordinary salubrity of the air. As it is, in spring and summer typhus fever and other contagious disorders, all traceable

to over-crowding and want of drainage, prevail to an extraordinary extent, and carry off or disable numerous victims. Nor is it the position of their houses that causes any part of these evils, for they are on the same level, in that respect, with the rich; as here, particular localities do not in the least affect rents, the dirtiest hovel being as often found opposite or next to the Government palace, as in other places.

Their diet is simple enough, consisting of "boorghul" —bruised hulled wheat, made in the house, boiled into a pilaf with butter, milk, sour milk, yaoort—and bread. Meat they use sparingly, and then only in summer when it is cheap, but the housewife generally manages to keep a few fowls affording them eggs, which, with the produce of the cow or goats, vary the monotony of their food. They only eat twice a-day; in the morning bread and yaoort, in the evening a boorghul pilaf and yaoort. Their principal consumption is bread, of which every man consumes one oke, or 2 lbs. 13 ozs. a-day.

The extraordinary expenses that fall heavily upon them, but which they could easily avoid, are those they incur for marriages, when a man, one would not suppose to possess a penny, not unfrequently spends 30*l.* raised on loan from his employer, that is dissipated during the seven days of riotous living preceding the ceremony.

At Bitlis, near Lake Van, the weavers' circumstances are far better. Not only is fuel, grain, and food much cheaper than near the central town of Erzeroom, and their houses more comfortable and cleaner, owing to their being generally built of stone, and subject to the natural drainage afforded by the numerous streams running through the town, but their earnings amount from 21*l.* 16*s.* 4*d.* to 25*l.* 10*s.*, per annum. This is due to the fact, that it is at Bitlis only, where the coarse cotton cloths they weave are also dyed red, and in that state not only used largely by the natives but exported in quantities to Russia and throughout Koordistan, thus ensuring constant employment throughout the greater part of the year. Yet the madders used for this purpose are all imported from Saert and Diarbekr, where the weavers are too apathetic or tied to old customs to combine the two operations. The fact is, routine rules every one in the East, the profession of the father

is followed by the son, and he would be considered a degenerate offspring if he deviated from the usual rule.

At Diarbekr, the weavers' gains are the same, but the rate of living cheaper, from the lower price of grain and rent. But again there, their taxes are, from improper assessments, much higher, and although wheat is now 16*s.* 4*d.* the quarter, it is occasionally 2*l.*, and stood on an average for five years at 1*l.* 12*s.* During such seasons of scarcity, then, owing to periodical ravages of locusts, or approach of the large Arab nomad tribes to buy up grain for their yearly use, they also are invariably—from their improvidence or fluctuating times—in debt to the capitalists employing them, which, owing to the exorbitant interest they pay, 30 per cent. per annum, materially alters a condition otherwise favourable. But in forming an estimate of the real condition of the weaving population in my district as compared with England, if we take into account their position with respect to their employers, the average rates of gains above quoted with their expenses, and consider that here, filth, discomforts of every kind, and want of education for themselves or children, are not considered evils, in the sense we take them, their condition, if not one of absolute content, is far superior to that of the same class in England. There the weaver and family are struggling to live on 7*s.* or less a week, only 4*l.* 10*s.* per annum more than the weaver gains here, but with expenses, that under any circumstances, cannot be met under 12*s.* a week, or 11*l.* more than is required here for a family. With them the alternative is either starvation or the work-house, here, however, although debt and bad times press upon the weaver, he has little fear of arrest, his employer's interests in him being too great to allow him to waste his time in confinement or continued idleness. The real great drawback in their condition is the only one they do not seem to feel at all, namely, that they are, as stated before, practically the slaves of the capitalist and must work on his own terms, without any hope of improving that condition or that of their children; and in consequence of the gradual but certain decrease in the demand for their work, it is impossible they can ever emerge from the state they are now in; a fact in itself alone sufficient to deter foreign immigrants of this class entering into the same market,

even if they were disposed, or could put up with the discomforts, trials, and privations the natives labour under, without—they being accustomed to them—complaining.

Millers.—There is little to be said for this class, which consists of five-eighths Christian to three-eighths Moslem.

Their condition, although a poor one, is better than the weavers, inasmuch as they are not, generally speaking, in debt, or dependent upon usurious masters, their employment not being of that nature to induce any one to advance them money on mortgage for their labour.

The town millers gain 1,500 piastres (13*l.* 12*s.* 8½*d.*) per annum, and those in the country 1,200 piastres (10*l.* 18*s.* 2*d.*). Each has an assistant, who receives, respectively, 500 piastres (4*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.*) and 200 piastres (1*l.* 16*s.* 4*d.*) annually. But the circumstance that they are all paid in kind, never in cash, renders their earnings fluctuating, as dependent upon the value of grain in the market, the miller taking for every quarter of corn sent him to grind, a certain fixed portion of it, which portion varies, being more in towns than in the country. Against this, however, their rents are never paid in money, but in a stipulated quantity of grain. The stones are all worked by water-power, and in these districts, owing to the long winter, are idle for five months.

Their gains being so small and precarious, it would be impossible for them to live, even when wheat is at a low average, but that they generally have some interest in agriculture or sheep, which, with what their women earn in rearing and selling fowls, enable them to make both ends meet. The mills are most miserable constructions, consisting of four bare walls made of loose stones, imbedded in mud, covered with a bare roofing of beaten earth, laid on mats and rafters. No attempts are ever made to clean them in the least, and therefore, what with the prevailing filth and bad quality of the stones, the flour they turn out is dark-coloured, gritty, and foul. The same wheat, exported to Russia and reimported by the wealthy in the shape of flour for occasional use in making pastry, can vie with the best European samples, and is sold for 1*s.* the oke, 2 lbs. 13 ozs.,

against 2¼*d.* for the same native ground. All classes here seem totally indifferent as to the quality of the bread they eat, which is far inferior to the worst kinds sold in Europe. Consequently, there is nothing to induce any one at present to attempt an improvement for profit, either in the mills or bakeries; but on the completion of the road to the coast, a good mill with an experienced English miller would be a most profitable speculation. Then the local trade in bread-stuffs would be certain to acquire an enormous development, from the mere fact of its affording easier, safer, and cheaper means of transit than now. The absence of such a road has always been the cause of hindering the full development of agriculture, local farmers being dependent entirely upon the limited demand of the home market. But in places where access to the coast is safe, easy, and cheap, the importation of European millers and mills, with a view to the export of proper bread-stuffs, has been attended with success; for mills erected and worked by Europeans have for some time existed at Samsoon, Amasia, and other places near the Black Sea, producing results that fully corroborate my assertion. There is no necessity to expend a large sum upon substantial stone buildings, as in Europe, the great outlay ought to be directed towards insuring, by purchase, a good and constant water-supply and suitable stones, which are not to be found here.

Artizans.—Under this head are classed carpenters, masons, smiths, tanners, dyers, &c., who practise only the most simple branches of their several trades, consequently there are few skilled workmen, like in Europe, and no encouragement at present for a better class. With very few exceptions all handicrafts are exercised by Christians, Mahometans only engaging in agriculture or pastoral pursuits, and then more commonly in the latter than the former. Notwithstanding that the rates of gain differ in different places, the condition of the artizans, as a class, is superior to that of those already mentioned; although, of course, inferior workmen are subject to the usual deduction on their earnings, attending want of skill or industry, and suffer during scarcity in consequence. But in the general character of work there is, regarding it in a European light, very little difference between the first and second-class workmen.

My remarks concerning them must be taken to apply to those exercising their occupations in towns alone, as in the country masons, plasterers, &c., are unknown, every peasant building his own house; while the carpenter there, who practises at the same time as a blacksmith, is capable of the rudest work, only exercising his calling irregularly, as the occasion may require, receiving for it payments in grain, rarely in money. All work requiring some skill is performed by town workmen, and horseshoeing by city farriers, who from time to time pay periodical visits to the country for that purpose.

After comparing the different rates of wages paid in different towns, I find that the average scales in my district paid per annum to the various handicrafts were as noted below, namely—

	Pias.	£	s.	d.
Carpenters, best	3,770 =	34	5	5
Ditto, ordinary	3,190	29	0	0
Masons, best	3,790	34	5	5
Ditto, ordinary	2,900	26	7	3
Ditto, assistant	870	7	17	3
Ditto, boys	290	2	12	8
Stone-cutters	2,900	26	7	3
Blacksmiths	2,900	26	7	3
Tanners	600	5	9	1
Dyers	1,750	15	18	2
Dyed skin polishers	2,500	22	14	6

There are no divisions in the several branches of work belonging to each occupation; thus for instance, the carpenter is, while exercising the rudest work, at the same time a kind of cabinet-maker, joiner, sash-frame worker, and not unfrequently, as at Arabkir, a mason as well. The mason also is, as the occasion requires, a plasterer, stonecutter, or bricklayer. As architects are unknown, he it is too that invariably plans the house and provides the estimates of expense. That they are capable of perfecting higher grades of work than they are ordinarily employed upon, did such a demand exist, is evident from the exactness with which, without being able to read or write, they complete their plans, and calculations they retain in their head only, and carry out simply by rule of thumb. The daily hours of work are ten in summer and eight in winter, but owing to feasts and holidays there are only 290 working days in the year. Masons, too, are prevented working during the five months of winter, and the other

class of artizans receive less for a winter than a summer day's work; otherwise the yearly earnings of all would be greater than the sums quoted. The system of payments is either by the day or piece; contracts for a whole work are unknown, as nothing like a master workman employing a number of hands exists, every one working independently for himself. The more usual way is to pay daily to each workman and boy employed. The quality of the work executed is, with few exceptions, of a very inferior character; for, not only are the great majority of the people in poor circumstances, and as yet far from civilized, but, as stated before, the richer classes like the poorer seem wholly indifferent to the discomforts that surround them. Although attempts are made in building and furnishing the houses to ornament ceilings, windows, &c., they are universally ill-built, and the carpentering such that windows and doors never shut properly, and the furniture nothing more than crazy deal benches, whose shabbiness and coarse condition are hidden by rich coverings. With the exception of the towns of Van, Bitlis, Kharput, Arabkir, Diarbekr, and Mardin, where the houses and general character of such labour are much better, I believe there is no district in Turkey so backward in all handicraft as this. In each one of the principal towns named there are, it is true, one or two, certainly not more, competent artizans of each class that take a pride in their work, and endeavour to do justice to their employer by giving him back his money's worth; but, excepting as regards himself, the character of such work has never influenced that of his fellow-craftsman or rate of their earnings, nor even do the earnings of such exceptional workmen much exceed that of the comparatively unskilled. And for the same reiterated reason, that the wants and tastes of the general mass of their customers is not of a nature to encourage talent in any way. The great demand among rich and poor is for cheap, therefore coarse and imperfect, labour, without—excepting durability—any reference to quality; and so it is, that there is no development of talent in any one branch of industry—all are stationary. And when it is considered that the dwellings, furniture, and modes of life of monied men differ but little in proportion from that of the poor artizan, there seems no hope of improvement or encouragement for imported labour of a superior

kind. What is the difference in the mode of life of the rich, as compared with the poor? Simply that the one has a larger barrack, keeps servants, consumes more meat, butter, and sugar; but the style and material of everything is essentially the same. Far from there existing any desire for luxury among them, there is not even a wish for any of the additional comforts—ease and enjoyment, which naturally attach to increasing means. Even the services of a paid cook are unknown, all the meals being prepared by the females of the family. In this respect even the poor man, comparatively, lives better than the rich; for the former frequently goes beyond his means in his expensive marriage proceedings and for other festivals, but the latter never lives up to a tithe of them, and is as parsimonious as the artizan is sometimes improvident. The natural impetus to improved labour proceeds from the rich, but when they are indifferent or adverse to anything better than they have been accustomed to, the quality of such labour and wages must always remain the same, if in fact they do not deteriorate.

The annual collective earnings and expenses of an artizan's family, consisting of himself and five persons, earning the highest gain, are:—

	Piastres.	£ s. d.
Earnings.		
Man, per annum	3,770	= 34 5 5
Boy, 15 years old	290	2 12 8
Wife, sewing	200	1 16 4
	4,260	38 18 5
Expenses.		
Wheat, 6 quarters, at 250 piastres (2*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.*) per quarter ..	1,500	13 12 8
Meat, during summer only, 56 okes, at 1¼ piastres (2½*d.*) per oke, of 2 lbs. 13 oz.	70	0 12 8
Rice	300	2 14 6
Rent	300	2 14 6
Four sheep, killed, salted, and jerked for winter use (five months), at 60 piastres (10*s.* 10*d.* each ..	240	2 3 7
Clothes	900	8 3 7
Fuel	200	1 16 4
Taxes	100	0 18 2
Total	3,610	32 16 2

Net gains, 6*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.*

This, again, is taking the lowest scale at which a family of the above condition can live when wheat is at the above prices; his general aggregate of yearly expenses is probably higher, but his net earnings are never more than the sum stated; although, generally speaking, the house he lives in is his own property. In that case, the item put down as rent goes in repairs and the discharge of the property-tax every householder has to pay; while, during periods of cheaper grain prices, the extra savings then accumulated serve to discharge expenses incurred during sickness and other incidental outlay. The staple of their diet, as with all other classes, is wheat used as bread, or boorghul. Fresh meat is used in summer only, as in winter it rises from 2½*d.* the oke of 2lbs. 13 ozs. to 6*d.*, and occasionally to 8*d.*, and then not procurable for days together. Each family has, in addition, a cow, or a few sheep, that supply them with butter and yaoort, either for use or sale. The very poorest families only are without them, and who, having no house of their own, are consequently obliged to pay rent, and buy the milk-food that enters so largely into the diet of every class here. As usual, the cow-house or sheep-pen is in the same building inhabited by the owner, generally near the common sitting-room of the family, or directly under it, if a two-storied house, as the warmth they afford is supposed to diminish the quantity of fuel otherwise required. Floorings or partitions being so ill-made, the exhalation from the cattle pervade the whole dwelling; and if they do serve to raise the temperature, they also contribute to the general ill-health and mortality.

The expenses requisite for a family of six of this poorer class of artizans, earning only 2,900 to 1,750 piastres per annum, range, as a rule, from 2,680 piastres (24*l.* 7*s.* 3*d.*) to 2,190 piastres (19*l.* 18*s.* 2*d.*), increased by 2*l.* more for fuel, milk, yaoort, and butter, they have to buy, not having any cattle. They eat meat once a-week in summer, but none in winter.

Their respective collective gains are :—

	Per Annum. Pias.	£	s.	d.
Man earning	2,900 =	26	7	3
Boy, ditto	290	2	12	8
Wife, ditto	200	1	16	4
	3,390	30	16	3
Man earning	1,750	15	18	2
Boy, ditto	290	2	12	8
Wife, ditto	200	1	16	4
	2,240	20	7	2

This is with wheat, as now, at 45 shillings, which would leave the artizan in debt; but its average price of 21 shillings enables him altogether, one year with another, to keep tolerably free; still he has nothing more than the real necessaries of life; dresses in the coarsest materials of home-made dyed stuffs, and is obliged to content himself with a mean hovel for a house.

The class of workmen I have been referring to would in England be considered as belonging to the lowest order; yet, if we compare the condition of a mason and carpenter of the same class there with those here, the difference would seem to be in favour of the latter. Earnings, if I am not mistaken, of such people in England are, at the most, 6*d.* an hour, which, if they work ten hours a-day during 307 days, making the working year, deducting Sundays and holidays, would be 76*l.* 15*s.* por annum; the expenses of a family for living and rent cannot be less than 65*l.*, leaving only 11*l.* 15*s.* for clothes, to provide during sickness, and other unavoidable contingencies; whereas, under the same circumstances, but working only 290 days, the workman here has a balance in his favour of 6*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.* It is true the native workman simply exists; he has none of those luxuries and comforts, such as tea, and a variety of other things, that have become necessaries to the Englishman; but he does not feel incommoded by what every European would deem unbearable; nor is he subject to that wasting and often useless struggle for life which characterises the English artizan in the overstocked market at home.

Agriculturists. — The agriculturalists form, in this district, as elsewhere in Turkey, the greater portion of the labouring population, and the most valuable to the

nation at large. The results of their labours furnish the principal item in the whole State income; while here they form more than one-half the sum derived from every source of taxation or impost. This population, with their assistants sharing in the gains, and remaining members of their families, consists of:—

Heads of agricultural families	..	200,000
Assistants	..	200,000
Remaining members of family	..	800,000

Although more than half of the land, especially near towns, is owned by Moslems, something over three-quarters of the agricultural labourers are Christians. As a rule, all lads, as soon as they arrive at the age of puberty, marry; there is no reference to means, strength and health being regarded as the only real essential ingredients of capital. I have put down each family as numbering six only—a low average for this class—who all help in the fields, or towards the general stock, in some way or the other. As a rule, there are no fixed yearly rents, or regular wages paid in cash; but when hired labourers are employed, a man for the six months he is alone occupied receives a suit of clothes, worth 60 piastres (10*s.* 10*d.*), and 100 maunds of wheat, worth 500 piastres (4*d.* 10*s.* 10*d.*) The general plan pursued by landlords is to advance the labour-seed; and should his land not be in a favourable position, or of good quality, a loan without interest, the proceeds of the harvest are, after deducting the seed-corn, then divided divided equally between landlord and tenant. The latter supplying all the labour for sowing, harvesting, storing, as well as the animals and implements.

It happens occasionally that a capitalist gives a certain lump sum of money down for the use of a piece of land for a stated number of years, but rents paid yearly, as in Europe, are unknown; in either case the pecuniary position of the labourers towards their employer remains the same. Families, except under the pressure of famine, never voluntarily desire to migrate from one district to the other or from their native village to a neighbouring one, although by doing so they might better their condition, the reasons being that their cottages, miserable hovels though they be, are generally their own, and that sedentary disposition common to

most Easterns. This habit is so exaggerated that the majority of the inhabitants in my district have never visited either Erzeroom, Diarbekr, Van, or Kharput, the chief towns in it. There is another system, but one not adopted here, although in the Diarbekr districts, where the peasants are poorer it is more general. The landlord or capitalist provides animals and seed but not the implements, together with a small loan in cash, without interest, on every quarter of seed sown; then, after deducting the seed, he takes two-thirds, and the peasant one-third, of the remainder. Under whatever system, then, the land is farmed, the labourer is, as it were, in partnership, for better or worse, with his landlord; and fluctuations in prices, or inconstancy of the seasons, affect the one as much as the other, in the proportionate degrees attaching to affluence or indigence. It is, in short, a system of joint adventure, the consequences of small capitals and limited demand for home consumption or export.

The land forming a mulk or property is divided into chifts, requiring, if light soil, two men and a boy, with a pair of oxen, to plough it in one day; stiffer lands require from six to ten pair to perform the same work, with three men and from two to four boys, who sit between the oxen to excite them to work by blows and cries. The hours of labour, on an average, are eight a-day, but their periods of occupation are limited to seed time and harvest; during the rest of the year the labourers have nothing to do. Their vicinity to towns so far affects their condition, inasmuch as then they turn their hands to other employments that utilize their idle hours and add to their resources; but others not so situated have to depend entirely upon the gains they may have accumulated during a limited period of work. With no grain export of any consequence, and a limited home demand, it is scarcely necessary to state that every branch of agriculture is in a very backward state, and the agriculturists themselves still more so. They are mere machines, without the slightest intelligence, utterly devoid of education and the sense of moral obligations. The most primitive means are used to labour the soil and excite its fertility; therefore no chemical processes or mechanical means have been adopted to lessen the pressure on the first or develop the second; in fact, the

agriculturist is entirely dependent upon the elements, while the refuse that ought to go to enrich his soil is used, in the absence of any other material within his means, for firing. Taking a favourable average, a single agriculturist's earnings throughout my district are certainly not more than 922 piastres, or 8*l.* 7*s.* 3*d.* a-year for labourers on the best system, and 820 piastres, or 7*l.* 9*s.* 1*d.* for those on the other systems, which, with wheat at the average price quoted per quarter before, 1*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.*, is not enough to enable him to feed and clothe his family in the coarsest manner, leaving nothing for taxes and other unavoidable expenses. The fund that partly defrays this balance against him consists in the extra earnings of his son, who is also an agriculturist, his wife and daughters, who rear fowls, spin cotton, or make stockings, and in the help he derives from his cows and sheep, of which every peasant possesses a few. But with all this they, as a class, are seldom out of debt, and they would be more so but that the custom prevails that several families (relatives) club together and throw their earnings into the common stock, which reduces the average expenditure to a limit more proportionate to their means. Although I have put down the average gains of the agriculturist at 922 piastres per annum, there is a great difference in earnings in different places, which will account for the embarrassed state I have stated they are generally in.

Thus, earnings are—

	First Class.				Second Class.			
	Pias.	£	*s.*	*d.*	Pias.	£	*s.*	*d.*
Erzeroom	1,200	= 10	18	2	1,090	= 9	18	2
Van	597	5	7	3	544	4	18	2
Moosh	1,392	12	12	8	1,249	11	5	5
Diarbekr	500	4	10	10	400	3	12	8
Average . ..	922	= 8	7	3	820	= 8	7	3

The peasants' gains depending not only upon money wages but on the fluctuations of crops, it will be supposed, as a matter of course, that an abundant harvest would tend to raise these rates of gain, and *vice versâ*, but the contrary is the fact. For instance, if a bountiful harvest gave, as the labourer's share, 30 quarters, it would be worth only, from the general abundance, 3,000

piastres (27*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.*), whereas, on a poor harvest, affording only 15 quarters, he would realize 3,750 piastres, or 34*l.* 1*s.* 9*d.* Such a discordant state of things is owing entirely to the impossibility of any export, combined with limited local demand. The poorest agriculturists are those in the Van and Diarbekr districts, at the same time their gains are less, although, generally speaking, they husband their resources better, by at Van substituting rye bread for wheat, and at Diarbekr barley for millet. I have known them, indeed, at the latter place during a period of four years, when locusts caused nearly an uninterrupted famine, mix a meal made from roasted acorns largely in their other meals to eke out the quantity. At Moosh the agricultural labourer would appear to be the best off, but they have been for years particularly subject to Koordish depredation during the winter. Then the pastoral tribes descend from the hills to the plains, and although, from a variety of causes they have in some measure ceased to annoy them to the same extent, yet the avanias they still exact from the defenceless peasantry amount, in the aggregate, to an additional tithe on their earnings. The consequence is, they also are encumbered with debt, and not in much better circumstances than the Van or Diarbekr labourer. The Erzeroom and Kars agriculturists are the best off, as one has the demands of a large town and military station to raise the price of his produce, while the other possesses an extensive export for his grains to Russia, which is conterminous to it, the short distance between the villages and the frontier towns being easily and cheaply traversed by carts.

The style of living and food is about the same among all the different members composing this class. Their cottages are the most miserable and filthy dwellings conceivable, being nothing more, in the Erzeroom districts, than long barns constructed of loose stones and sun-dried brick imbedded in mud, covered with pine rafters and a superincumbent layer of beaten earth; inside the heighth is sufficient for a person to stand upright. They contain generally a raised platform or planking at one end, which is reserved for the members of the family, who sleep indiscriminately together; the rest being occupied by their cattle, sheep, fowls, and dogs. Glazed windows are unknown, light being admitted, during summer only,

by narrow open apertures in the walls, which in winter are carefully stopped up. They use no candles, their only light, in addition to the fire on an open hearth, being obtained from a coarse cotton wick placed in a rude earthenware open lamp, fed by the fetid oil of the castor-oil plant.

Their carpeting consists of coarse felts manufactured by the women from wool obtained from their sheep; their covering at night a kind of quilt also padded with wool which is used, without ever being washed, till it falls to pieces. It is needless to say they have nothing in the shape of proper beds, bedsteads, drainage or ventilation. At and about Moosh the cottages are entirely underground, the walls consisting of the bare native earth, the roof only being slightly elevated above the level of the soil. Light is obtained from a circular opening in the roof, which also serves for the common chimney. In the Diarbekr and Kharput districts the dwellings are the same as about Erzeroom, but generally in the former the cattle are separated in a stable opening into, but apart from, the habitable portion. This is the general style of accommodation the agricultural class can alone boast of; but in each village there are of course better descriptions of habitations, belonging to the small landowners or employers.

The best, however, is very miserable compared to the poorest English cottage, and all serve equally for dwelling and stabling.

As stated before, their dress and food are the coarsest and most frugal possible. They generally get a full suit of clothes once a year, costing them 50 to 60 piastres (9*s.* 1*d.* to 10*s.* 10*d.*); about once in four years a holiday suit if times are good, worth about 150 piastres (1*l.* 7*s.* 3*d.*) The staple of their food is bread, boorghul, and the different preparations made from milk. Their only esculent vegetables are onions, sometimes a few cucumbers or melons; they never touch meat but when one of their animals dies from accident, old age, or sickness, then the meat is divided among the villagers and paid for in grain. The amount of such expenses yearly, taking average earnings, prices of meat and other articles in the Erzeroom district, are,—

	Pias.	£	s.	d.
Average income of a family of six—				
One man	922	= 8	7	1
One boy, 18 years of age ..	330	3	0	0
Wife and grown-up daughter ..	200	1	16	4
Total	1,452	13	3	5
Average expenditure per annum—				
6 quarters of wheat, at 1*l.* 2*s.* ..	726	6	12	0
Clothes for four grown-up people	240	2	1	9
Taxes	150	1	7	3
Sundries	250	2	5	5
Total	1,366	12	6	5

Thus the labourer, although during scarcity having a balance against him, could turn it in his favour, or at least make both ends meet, either by substituting coarser wheat or barley for it, but his waste and improvidence place him invariably at the mercy of periodical high prices, during which he is obliged to have recourse to loans. There is no contrivance to relieve him similar to that by which European communities are saved in a great measure from such calamities. There exists no system of storing and husbanding a surplus, by which nearly equable supplies are ensured between harvest and harvest. It is the universal rule, that prices of all kinds of grain here are uniformly cheapest after harvest but rise steadily as the year advances, attaining the highest figure just before harvest. The Government indeed, generally, in its ignorance of economical laws, interferes during times of scarcity by endeavouring to force a fixed price called "Nerkh," but this makes matters worse, for as it is always below the market value of the commodity, imports are suspended, and the already high prices raised artificially still higher. Considering the great variations in the scale of earnings throughout my district, the only practicable remedy would be emigration to favoured localities. This measure, however, in a country whose grain export is practically during most years prohibited, owing to a high priced and limited animal carriage to the coast, and which is unable to dispose of a surplus grain supply to contiguous famine-stricken Provinces, from the same causes becomes impossible or useless, even if the Legislature permitted such wholesale deportation; but it has always been the policy of the Turkish

Government to endeavour to fix agriculturists forcibly to the soil or village where they were born, for the double reason of thereby promoting agriculture, and equalizing tax rates, which are not levied on individuals but upon communities. In conformity with our obsolete statutes—the Statute of Labourers of Edward III, and the Law of Parochial Settlement of Charles II, —the labourer is forbidden to leave his own village, although unable to find employment or adequate gains in the place of his birth, and is not allowed to transfer his labour to other agricultural districts, where wages may be good and work in demand. There seems no restriction to his emigrating to towns, but there he is only capable of performing the lowest services requiring simply corporal strength. Such, then, is the condition of the agricultural labourer; practising the most primitive form of husbandry; his status approaches as nearly as possible to that of the English agriculturalist as described by Professor Rogers in the 14th and 15th centuries. Something better off than the town hand-loom weaver, he could, under ordinary circumstances, support a family in the bare necessaries of life in a hut of his own, and in the degree of decency or respectability—very far removed from what is considered decent and respectable in Europe—that alone is known or appreciated in their districts; but in times of scarcity and famine he has nothing to fall back upon, no Government or parochial aid, no savings he can revert to in such times of dire need to relieve him or his family. Isolated members of families may be, and are, starved into large towns, where they find employment, and so in some measure modify their condition, but the great bulk, the most helpless, for whom there is no such relief, remain to die of starvation or of the diseases caused by improper and stinted food. This condition can only be bettered by such public works as will, by facilitating exportation, promote and encourage the increase of the general wealth of the country, and so develop—by increasing and improving agriculture—a demand for foreign labour and for his. Under such circumstances, there would be a large opening for immigrants possessing small capitals and agricultural knowledge, in Northern Mesopotamia, about the Khaboor and Upper Euphrates—included in the district of Diarbekr—particularly. The climate is

healthy and equable, and not subject to extremes of heat and cold, as in other places, and essentially adapted for cotton.

Pastorals.—Their numbers in the Erzeroom and Diarbekr vilaiets are,

	Souls.
Heads of pastoral families	109,800
Assistants taking charge of sheep	109,800
Remaining number of families	439,200
Total number of souls	658,800

The whole of them, with few exceptions, hardly important enough to be noticed, are Moslems. During winter they live in small huts constructed of loose stone, but of a far more miserable character, if possible, than those described before, situated in low-lying valleys. Their flocks and horses are penned and tethered in similar but larger buildings communicating with the dwelling chamber, as in other villages already noticed. In spring and summer they migrate to the hills in their or adjacent districts, where they live in spacious goat-hair or woollen tents. Their food is the same as that of the agricultural class, consisting of bread, boorghul, and all the preparations derived from milk; with them, also, meat is rarely used, unless travellers of consequence alight at their homes, when it is the invariable custom to kill a lamb or sheep or more, as the occasion requires. They certainly are distinguished by a rough hospitality, though at the same time in their migrations, they are the most notorious thieves possible. Their furniture is rather better than that of the other classes, inasmuch as their females manufacture good carpets, with which every family is provided, in addition to fine felts. Their condition, taking food, dwellings, clothing, and universal ignorance as criterions, would justly warrant me in classing them in the lowest scale; but it is a well-known and established fact, that among the labouring classes generally they solely are rich and well to do. The habits, position, and manner of life peculiar to these people enable them to trick or totally evade the tax farmer, while the same causes operate to relieve them from the usual four days' corvée every adult male is bound to give to the State yearly, as also the pressure of Government officers and soldiers, who in travelling

about the district, or in changing quarters from one town to the other, exercise such tyranny towards, and occasion so great expenses to, the sedentary populations. It is this class alone that, contributing the least to the Treasury, and having no more expenses than the agriculturist, absorbs at the same time all the cash remittances to these parts, from other places in Turkey and from Europe, for cattle, sheep, horses, wool, and butter. None are so poor as not to possess a few sheep or goats, sufficient, with their earnings as shepherds, to maintain a family in the rude state they are accustomed to live, while the more prosperous (opulent capitalists rather than labourers, and so not to be considered here) can count their flocks by thousands.

The only class appertaining to the question under review is the one that supplies shepherds. These are all taken from the poorer of the pastorals, who, not possessing sheep sufficient for their expenses, take the charge of those belonging to strangers, in addition to their own. They are employed by the rich townsmen or country proprietors possessing sheep, but without any fixed wages of any kind, their earnings being fluctuating, and derived from a system of "métaire," closely analogous to that of south-western Europe. That is, the cattle and sheep are, as it were, leased to them, returns, however, never being paid in money to the proprietors but in produce, while the shepherd is bound to return, whenever called upon, the flocks and their young, less, of course, the number that may have been lost from accident or disease. Shepherds on this system are termed "kome" shepherds. There is another class, consisting of regularly paid shepherds, who, however, do not remove far from towns, and are not migratory. They belong generally to agricultural families, and are not entirely dependent upon their small earnings alone for maintenance. They receive from 150 to 200 piastres a-year, a suit of clothes and their food, altogether amounting to 480 piastres (4*l.* 7*s.* 3*d.*) Three of them are expected to take care of 1,000 sheep throughout the year.

The "kome" shepherd requires the services of two boys, generally his own relatives, and four dogs, to take charge of 800 sheep, and receives a hut, of the same kind described before, rent free, and per annum the following perquisites :—

For every twenty sheep in his charge.—One lamb.
For every twenty lambs born also.—One lamb.
For every twenty sheep in his charge —One gote (half a bushel) of wheat, and the same of barley.
A piece of land capable of being sown with two quarters of wheat, rent free.

He is also allowed to keep ten of his own sheep for every hundred he has in charge, on his employer's pasture, in itself an enormous advantage in the neighbourhood of towns, where such pasture-grounds are dear and sought after; further, all the wool he is able to clip from the owner's yearling lambs is also his own property. The shepherd is obliged to give the owner every year for every four sheep he takes care of 6 okes of butter (17 English lbs.), and the same of cheese, besides all the wool, as also the lambs, after he has deducted his share on them noted before, together with the expenses of shearing and washing. Reduced to money, then, the shepherd's gains per annum, on 800 sheep he has in charge, supposing they drop 700 lambs in favourable years, will be :—

	Pias.	£	s.	d.
Lambs, 75 at 10 piastres each ..	750 =	6	16	4½
Their wool	75	0	13	7½
Value of grain given him as per contract	494	4	9	1
Value of land rent free, given him for cultivation, as per contract ..	200	1	16	4¼
Total	1,919	13	15	5

The annual store of grain required for a family of six being secured him by the seed, and land supplied him according to his contract by his employer, he has *nothing* to pay on that score; his remaining expenses per annum are—

	Pias.	£	s.	d.
Clothes and necessaries for six ..	600 =	5	9	1
Taxes	150	1	7	3
Shearing and washing 800 sheep, at 5 piastres	100	0	18	2
	850	7	14	6

so leaving him at the end of the year with a balance in his favour of 6*l.*; but he has in addition to pay—being nearly always a member of some Koordish tribe—annual fees to his Chief, amounting, in the aggregate, to 1*l.*, leaving him 5*l.* clear, without counting his savings from the produce of his own small flock, to replace un-

avoidable losses among his own sheep, provide them pasture, and other unavoidable expenses.

As his own private flock increases, and attains in the end—deducting losses by disease—a respectable number, he retires from servitude and assumes a purely pastoral life, sharing in the migrations and wanderings of the tribe to which he may belong. Although nothing like high farming is known or attempted, and no better fodder provided for sheep during winter than hay and dried oak leaves, yet sheep farming, as it exists here, is the only occupation attended to with anything like care or foresight to attain good results. Thus, attention is bestowed particularly on a proper selection of ewes and rams, the latter being not unfrequently purchased for 4*l.* each, a large sum in these districts, where three milk cows or a good serviceable horse cost the same. Here we have at once the advantages obtained from a facility of export, the want of which has crippled and deteriorated agriculture, and most other occupations. Sheep and cattle walk from the pastures to the market towns, as far even as Constantinople, Syria, and Egypt, with very little expense or loss to the trader buying them for extra food on the road, other than they get by grazing as they march along; and, as the traders of course buy the best animals at higher rates than the poorer specimens, not only on account of the difference between the two, but also for their greater durability on the road, care and assiduity have been taken to improve breeds, and hinder anything like deterioration in meat or wool. This is the only occupation, at present, in which an English immigrant possessed of a small capital could certainly turn to advantage, with better success even than in Australia; but the different explanations with reference to it are too long to enter into here, and foreign to the subject of this paper, which regards labourers simply.

Purchase Power of Money.

To fix any real approximate of the purchase power of money, the knowledge of the relative sums upon which a labourer here, as compared with England, can live, would not be alone sufficient, as the relative comforts and security as well, which such an expenditure can assure, ought also to be taken into account. In England,

although the poor artizan or labourer finds it difficult to live, he can, at all events, have the advantages attaching to a certain degree of cleanliness, a tolerable dwelling, the use of articles such as tea, sugar, beer, &c., he has always been accustomed to, and the protection of a just Government, assisted by a pure magistracy, against undue demands from petty officials, and the unjust domineering of avaricious influential employers, who hold such people here in a species of bondage, resulting from their pecuniary claims upon them. But to treat the subject in this light would be entering into too wide a field; I will therefore base my approximate simply upon facts belonging to the every-day life of the labouring classes here.

One of the most useful criterions, perhaps, will be to state upon how much a family of the classes under consideration can live in their respective countries.

In the workhouses in England, where strict economy is studied, and where there are constant complaints that the inmates are, for food, worse off than criminals in the public jails, I believe that a man, his wife, and five children, cannot usually be kept under 1*l.* a week, reckoning nothing for house rent and the savings effected on buying provisions in large quantities; it has, further, been stated that with the same comforts they enjoy in the workhouses a labouring man could not keep himself and family under 23*s.* a week. There, however, as here, he is willing to sacrifice a great deal in the way of warmth, lodging, food, and dress, rather than incur the penalty of separation from his family or native village. In England, therefore, he manages to live on wages hardly ever more than 14*s.* a week, or 36*l.* 8*s.* per annum, his extra gains during harvest going to pay the rent of his cottage.

Under the same circumstances, the agricultural labourer here, for himself and a family of five, spends during the same period 12*l.* 6*s.* 5*d.*; but there is this difference in his favour: he does not retrench in the least on his previous mode of life, nor deprive himself of anything he has been accustomed to. This, then, would at once give a purchase power here three times greater than in England; and, taking the workhouse rate at 1*l.* a week, four times greater. It is the same if we compare the respective prices of labour:—

	Koordistan, Per annum.			England, Per annum.			
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	
Best artisan	38	18	5	130	0	0	at 2*l.* 10*s.* per week.
Ordinary	30	16	3	76	15	0	at 6*d.* per hour.
Inferior	20	7	2				
Agriculturist	13	3	5	36	8	0	at 14*s.* per week.

A comparison of the relative expenditure of the above classes will give similar results, while in the kind of provisions usually consumed by them—excepting in wheat—the purchase power is still greater. Their average prices are :—

	Here.			In England.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Butter, per 2 lbs. 3 oz. ..	0	1	3	0	2	9¾
Wheat, per quarter ..	1	2	0	2	5	0
Bread, 4 lbs.	0	0	2	0	0	10
Meat, in summer ..	0	0	1	0	0	10
Cheese, per 17 lbs. ..	0	1	9	0	3	6½

Another, and perhaps the best test is the rate of interest on safe loans, which, in England, is 5 per cent., and here 12 per cent. per annum, the latter being the same time the local legal rate. Although a comparison between these two rates would reduce the power before arrived at, yet still, taking all facts into consideration, one with the other—particularly the low price of provisions—I think it can be safely affirmed that the purchase power of money here is at least three times greater than at home. Causes may arise, such as fluctuations in the price of grain and money to affect that power, but, as a general rule, they would not tend, under present circumstances, either to raise or depress it for any length of time.

SUMMARY.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.						Purchase Power.
	Local.				British.		
	Piastres.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	
Labour—								
Artizan, best	4,260 =	38	18	5	130	0	0	The table gives the average yearly earnings of the labouring classes here, with the English equivalents, as also what I suppose the same kind of British labour earns per annum. Taking into account the respective earnings and purely necessary expenses of each class in their respective countries, and the relative prices of provisions as given, the purchase power of money here is three times greater than in England, although the legal *rate* of interest here is 12 per cent. per annum, *against* 5 per cent. there.
„ ordinary ...	3,390	30	16	3	76	15	0	
„ inferior ...	2,240	20	7	2				
Agriculturist	1,452	13	3	7	36	8	0	
Provisions—								
Butter, per 2 lbs 13 oz.	7	0	1	3	0	2	9¾	
Bread, per 4 lbs. ...	... ...	...		...	0	0	10	
Meat, per lb.	1²⁄₂₀	0	0	2	0	0	10	
Cheese, per 17 lbs. ...	10	0	1	9¾	0	3	6½	
Grape syrup, used as treacle and sugar by the poor, per 17 lbs.	10	0	1	9¾	...			
Wheat, per quarter ...	122	1	2	0	2	5	0	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Boorghul pillaf made with butter. Bread, but very indifferent kind. A variety of milk-food and cheese. Meat in summer rarely; the more better-to-do use a kind of salted and jerked meat during winter, as also grape syrup, called "dibs," and "pekmez." Beverage, the light country wines. Vegetables in the country, onions only; in and near towns the commoner Eastern kinds, such as egg-plants, beetroot, turnips, &c; watermelons and common fruits; the latter are very indifferent. A European might use all these, except the fruits, and thrive well on them. Firing is generally scarce and dear.

Clothing.—For a European much the same as in Europe, but the articles he most requires, particularly shoes, are difficult to be got here, and dear. All the items of a native's costume are far worse and coarser than in England. They use scarcely any woollen clothes, all their articles of dress being made of coarse linen, felts, goat hair, and bombazine. Shoes very bad, nothing but ill-shapen pieces of improperly prepared leather. They wear only one suit a year, worth 10*s.* 10*d.* only.

Lodging.—For the artizan and agriculturist classes, most wretched—a mixture of stable and dwelling. Nearly all on ground floor, consisting of two rooms and a cow-house or stable communicating with each other. Glazed windows in towns only. No ventilation, drainage, sculleries, kitchens, or closets.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Summary of Remarks on.—There being no encouragement or demand for a better style, and wants of this nature being very limited, all kinds of work are very poor and indifferent, the best being scarcely on a par with that of the third-class European artizans. The same for agriculture, which is carried on in a primitive and lazy manner, quite independent of mechanical or chemical resources, in a kind of partnership between landlord or capitalist and agriculturalist; therefore, no money wages or fixed earnings. Hired labourers very rare. The only money-making and well-to-do labouring class, the Pastoral. In this branch there are openings for foreign immigrants with small capitals.

(Signed) J. G. TAYLOR.

Erzeroom, November 5, 1870.

MONASTIR.

Acting Consul Cortazzi to Earl Granville.—(Received November 28.)

My Lord, *Monastir, October 25, 1870.*

In compliance with the Foreign Office Circular instructions of the 7th of June last I have now the honour to inclose herewith to your Lordship a Report on the condition of the industrial classes in this Consular district.

I have, &c.

(Signed) FREDERICK S. CORTAZZI.

Inclosure.

Report by Acting Consul Cortazzi upon the Position of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Monastir.

The prosperity of a country is measured by the consumption of necessaries, comforts, and luxuries, divided by the figure of its population; but it is difficult to form an accurate estimate of the proportion which the agricultural, trading, and industrial classes relatively bear to the mass of the population in this district, as there are but few places in it from which a large number of artizans and labourers are not periodically absent from their homes in search of employment in other parts of the Empire, and the population, calculated at 822,000 souls, is only known by estimate and not by the result of a general census.

Taking this number as a basis, it may safely be said that fully three-fourths of the inhabitants are employed in agriculture, and the remaining portion are occupied as traders and artizans. This is not so surprising if it be taken into consideration the fertility and varied nature of the soil, added to a favouring climate, which enables the agriculturist to procure nearly all the necessaries of life. But the agricultural class here, from indolence as from ignorance, do not utilize three-fourths of the land

subject to cultivation, and hardly obtain from the other fourth the amount of produce they might easily receive. The Mussulman villages of Monastir and Gheortcha take some interest in the tillage of their land, as far as their limited knowledge and rude implements permit them, while those of Ochrida and Dibra appear to have a perfect distaste for field labour, and prefer to remain in idleness with arms on their person and to leave to their wives or to the Bulgarians the culture of their possession which furnishes them with their daily bread.

The Bulgarians in this province seem to enjoy a sort of Colonist right to a considerable portion of the land belonging to the Mussulman Beys and Aghas, as also to those lands held by the rich Christians, which the latter have acquired by thrift or by other less avowable means. It is calculated in this province that 75 to 80 per cent. of the landowners are Mussulman, 15 to 17 per cent. are Christians, and 3 to 5 per cent. are Jews.

The landowner provides these people with a house or hovel, supplies them with seed, ploughing cattle, and the implements of agriculture in usage. The Bulgarian gives simply his labour. At the end of harvest, and after the dime, or tenth part of the produce has been deducted for Government account, the net produce is equally divided between the landowner and the petty farmer (métayer). The verghie, or property tax on the sum realized, is also paid by them in equal shares.

By this it would appear that the Bulgarians are the chief agriculturists in the country, and, indeed, such is the case, but, unfortunately, these people are without intelligence; they work by routine, are hostile to innovation, and are indifferent to any amelioration. If the earth turned up by them brings a good harvest, it is well; better they care not to have. They perfectly understand the system of irrigation, though they prefer to leave in fallow their lands, for no other reason, that I can discover, than it enables them to remain during a portion of the year in idleness.

The chief feature in the industry of the people of this and, I may add, the neighbouring districts, is the labour performed by the peasant's family at home. Every countrywoman, and many of those living in the towns, be they Christian or Mahometan, not only spin and weave all material necessary for clothing for their own use and

that of their families, but send for sale to the nearest market the surplus of their work, and thus considerably add to their little income.

The industrial population of the towns, that is to say, that portion that occupies itself exclusively with the production or preparation of such articles as are meant for sale, and who open shops in connection with the nearest different villages as salesmen, form themselves into guilds or Corporations (Essnafs).

The Essnaf is an assembly of the masters of those professions or trades that bear analogy to each other. These communities are regularly organized. They have each a recognized Chief, or President, as he is called, and who is elected by the majority of the members. They have their statutes, and hold meetings. The members are bound by reciprocal engagements to agree on all matters having reference to current prices or opposition thereto. The admission of a workman or an artizan to any Essnâf is regulated by its President, who either decides on his own responsibility at once, or submits the case at a general meeting of the members. It is also part of the duty of the President to see that each member of his Essnaf complies with the law, as also the special rules of the Corporation to which he belongs. He has the power to fine, in accordance with these rules, those who disobey them; he is entrusted with the seal of office of the Association, and the local authorities look to him as the exponent of all matters connected with the Guild of which he is the chief member.

The claims to admission of any new member are inquired into at a meeting convened for the purpose. If the applicant is admitted his entrance-fee is inscribed in a book kept for the purpose, which sum, together with any fines that may have been imposed, or donations made, go towards the relief of distressed workmen of the craft, or is applied to the use of their orphan children. Nothing of a political nature is to be attributed to these associations.

In principle every Essnaf enjoys a monopoly of its trade or profession, as no one is allowed to form part of it without the consent, or under the considerations already mentioned.

The Mussulman population, when joined with the Christian, as it frequently occurs, are far from rendering

ready obedience to the bye-laws which govern these corporations, and difficulties arise in consequence.

Sixty-nine of these Essnafs exist in the bazaar of Monastir:—41 Christian, 19 Mussulman, and 9 Hebrew. This division by creed in no wise interferes with the working of the system, for, as I have already said, the Mussulman and the Christian are frequently mixed together. If there is not a sufficient number on either side to form a separate Essnaf they remain together under the authority of a President, who necessarily belongs to that creed which is in a majority. Thus there are ten Essnafs in which the Mahomedan creed previls. The Jews form a separate section, and do not admit a member of a different belief.

Merchants, properly so called, do not form part of an Essnaf, though they have their counting-houses, and as a rule a shop attached for the sale in retail of various products.

The following table shows the average rate per day of wages for artizans and labourers:—

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Shoemakers	2	0	to	2	6
Tailors	2	0		2	10
Joiners	2	0		2	6
Male reapers	1	6		2	0
Female ditto.	0	10		1	0
Vine-diggers	1	2		1	4
Unskilled labourers	0	10		1	0

Masons, stone-cutters, house-carpenters, house-painters, and tilers are paid by the piece or by fixed agreement. These come chiefly from the neighbouring district of Dibra in the season commencing April-May. They are subject to the superintendence of a commissary (mufvelis) appointed by Government, and attached to the Bildia or Municipal Council, to whom application is made in the first instance when their services are required.

The dwellings of the agricultural class are merely composed of earth of a clayey soil mixed with straw bricks of the same material, also left to harden in the sun. The wood employed is chiefly beech or pine, badly seasoned. Oak is hardly to be found for such purposes. The wild valonea is to be met with, and is often used for building purposes. Glass windows are seldom to be seen, a simple wooden shutter is used to close the hole that gives light to the common apartment. The floor is

not planked, and in the winter the inhabitants are squatted in a circle round a wood fire, the smoke of which finds its outlet by the roof. In the towns the houses are better, they are more or less weather-proof, are glazed, and have fire-places with chimneys. A rude sort of divan with a common chair or two forms the only furniture.

The diet of both villagers and townspeople is very simple. It consists chiefly of bread made from Indian corn mixed with rye, and is of a good quality. Pepper in the pod, leeks, and garlic they eat a great quantity. Salt fish sometimes, and meat very seldom. At marriage feasts, or on some special occasion, a sheep is roasted whole for the benefit of all guests.

With regard to temperature it changes so rapidly even in a day, that it is not so easy to set down any rules to guard against it. Monastir is in a plain surrounded by a chain of hills. The rain of autumn and the snow of winter melted in the spring find naturally their level, and hence, though the lands inundated from these sources renders them more fertile in the summer, it is the cause of much fever, which at times, owing to the spare diet of the people, generates into a fever of a malignant description. The Karasou, with the different torrents that feed this river frequently places the surrounding country under water, leaving on its retreat tracts of land of a soft nature well adapted for agriculture, but charged with miasma, which the stoutest peasant finds difficulty to overcome.

The greatest degree of cold from December to March varies from 5° to 15° centigrade. The thermometer, with a wind from the north, (a prevailing wind during the winter months), has fallen as low as 20° centigrade. The heat in the height of summer—July and August—varies from 25° to 30° centigrade in the shade during the day, falling to 7° to 8° during the night.

In conclusion it may be said that the condition of the urban and agricultural population is on the whole good, and if at times misery exists it may be traced to the manner that the Government imposes its taxes and collects the dime, the want of security on the one side, joined to ignorance and apathy on the other, which stifles in a great measure the resources of the country.

(Signed) FREDERICK S. CORTAZZI.

Monastir, October 25, 1870.

RHODES.

Vice-Consul Biliotti to Earl Granville.—(Received October 11.)

My Lord, *Rhodes, September 26, 1870.*

In answer to Mr. Otway's Circular despatch of the 7th June last, I have the honour to transmit herewith my Report on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Ottoman Archipelago; but I am sorry to add that the object for which the Report in question is asked cannot apply to this Vice-Consulate in consequence of the want of labour in the Islands of the Sporades.

I have, &c.

(Signed) ALFRED BILIOTTI.

Inclosure.

Report by Vice-Consul Biliotti on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Islands of the Ottoman Archipelago.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

The wages of mechanics vary from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* per diem, according to their skill in work, and to their various trades. But they have not continual employment, and sometimes remain for weeks without work. Native artizans, who live mostly on bread, onions, olives, cheese, and salt-fish, earn hardly enough to support themselves and families; those who can make savings are exceptions. An English mechanic living here as well as he lives in England, if single, or married but without children, could not spend less than from 3*l.* to 4*l.* per month; or (supposing that he gets constant employment) all his wages, without being able to save anything; but if he has children, he could hardly, even with the strictest economy, support his family. The great drawback is the want of labour. There are no establishments requiring constantly a certain number of

hands, but each mechanic must find for himself a week or a day's work, which he often fails to do. The hours of labour are from an hour after sunrise to sunset.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

With respect to matters of health, no better place than the Islands of the Ottoman Archipelago can be found.

Diet.—The food that can be procured is limited to the first necessaries of life, but they are wholesome; the only thing to be avoided is the eating of raw fruit, which engenders ague, and often more grave disorders. Spirits, although consumed in large quantities by the natives, prove hurtful in few cases only; but all such beverages may be considered as useless, as that part of the Mussulman population which do not use any are not the worse for it.

Winter is very mild, and summer's heat is tempered by cooling north-westerly winds. During the winter season five or six really cool days only, and as many hot days in summer, can be reckoned. Fire is not essential in winter, while the heat in summer is never overpowering. Woollen garments are required in winter, and white cotton or linen-stuffs are the best for summer. General experience proves that wearing flannel, or a flannel waist-belt, all the year round, as well as a white head-covering in summer, have health-preserving powers.

Lodgings, although deficient in many respects, are healthy, thanks to the salubrity of the climate, and can be procured close to the place where the work may be going on. There are no risks whatever to families from miasmatic dirt, overcrowding, or air-poisoning.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The quality of the work executed by workmen, although some of them are competent in certain departments, is in general of the clumsiest description. A few of them, however, take a pride in their work, and put their character into it, but they are exceptions; and this cannot be said of any class of artizans in particular,—it is quite personal. The skill and trustworthiness of the

workmen exercises certainly an influence upon the wages, as they obtain the highest rates. In very rare instances work of superior quality is required, which cannot be executed here for want of skilful mechanics; but in general the inhabitants are satisfied with bad work, provided that they have little to pay for it.

(Signed) ALFRED BILIOTTI.

Rhodes, September 26, 1870.

SALONICA.

Consul Wilkinson to Earl Granville.—(Received November 10.)

My Lord, *Salonica, October 24, 1870.*

WITH reference to the late Earl of Clarendon's despatch of the 7th of June last, transmitting to me copies of two Circulars that his Lordship had addressed to Her Majesty's Diplomatic Representatives abroad for Reports on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries with a view to the introduction of British labour, I have the honour to state that, in the Report on the subject which I addressed to the Foreign Office in September 1869, I took occasion to advert to the difficulties and obstacles which intended immigrants into this part of Turkey would meet and have to contend against, such, for instance, as the low rate of current wages, barely sufficient to meet the simple wants of the native industrial classes. The jealousy and enmity of the natives; the Mohammedans, especially, against foreign adventurers of every class and description, expressed in irritating annoyances and hindrances to the quiet and successful prosecution of any industrial calling. The law's delay; the uncertainty of legal redress; the insecurity to life; and, above all, the insalubrity of the climate. In addition to the above dissuasives, I would adduce the difficulty of language, the initial, and, perhaps, the greatest the intended immigrant would have to encounter, English being neither spoken nor understood, and three tongues in the country districts, and double the number in the towns, being currently spoken, all strange to the immigrant, and constituting a barrier to all intelligent and satisfactory communication with the people of the country. The uncultivated tastes of both townspeople and peasantry, so primitive as to render them incapable of appreciating or estimating at its proper worth, or even discriminating between rude and skilled workmanship. The illegal exactions of the petty Government officials, and the forcibly billeting themselves on the helpless

peasantry, and, finally, the irregular and extortionate mode of levying the taxes. Any one of the foregoing is sufficient, in my opinion, to deter any agriculturist, mechanic, or craftsman from attempting to better his condition by settling in this part of the Sultan's dominions.

I have, &c.
(Signed) RICHD. WILKINSON.

SCUTARI.

Consul Reade to Earl Granville.—(Received December 3.)

My Lord, *Scutari, November* 14, 1870.

In obedience to Mr. Otway's Circular of the 7th June last, relative to the condition of the Industrial Classes in Foreign Countries, I have the honour to transmit to your Lordship, herewith inclosed, such a Report on the subject as it is possible to draw up from this.

A return of figures I have been utterly unable to make out, no two, of the many I have sought information from, agreeing.

I have, &c.
(Signed) R. READE.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Reade on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Province of Scutari.

The province of Scutari, Albania, from the little attention to its material interests that the Porte has been hitherto enabled to bestow upon it in comparison with the other provinces of the Empire, is, as regards the habits, manners, and occupation of the population, about what it was a century ago.

The principal causes are two—firstly, the precariousness of the relations with Montenegro;

Secondly, the continued existence of the vendetta system in all its virulence.

The population being always armed, and it being calculated that about three-fourths of the population are implicated closely and distantly in cases of vendetta, it may readily be imagined, under all these circumstances, what little progress can have been made, and what can be the nature of the occupation of the natives here.

There are no manufactures of any description, and almost the only labour that is performed here is the cultivation of the Indian corn crops, which, compared with similar cultivation in other countries, is very inferior.

A Scutarian ploughs with his firelock on his back; he digs with it always near him, and no one moves about without his arms. This is in the country. In the towns a similar state of things exists. The shopkeeper and artizan have always their pistols in their belts; in short, little more need be added when it is stated that many of the very mendicants are armed.

The anomalous condition of the place will therefore be easily imagined.

Every effort has been made to obtain correct and useful information on the subject in question, but so fluctuating and divergent are prices and wages in general—no two artizans, for instance, receiving the same remuneration—that it is impossible to draw up a correct Report with prices.

As another instance, about ten days ago Indian corn rose from about 10*s.* to nearly 1*l.* the horse load, simply on account of the inundations from the great rain that fell, and which threatened to destroy the corn that was not gathered in. The water disappeared, and the corn at once came down to almost its first price: this is of not unfrequent occurrence.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

With respect to this as compared with England, it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to give a correct answer.

If house-rent be included (which is far out of all proportion as regards other expenses, amounting to on an average about 8 per cent. on the value), a man with 100*l.* a year will have a far better house, and will live better in every respect in England than he will here. Indeed, it is doubtful if an Englishman wishing to live simply, plainly, and decently, as he would do in England, could manage to do so with what he would find here without importing many articles for himself from abroad. The actual prices here may be somewhat lower than in England, but the expenses of transport between the sea and this would make up the difference. So out of all reasonable proportion is porterage here that a short time ago a native of this, who added a few rooms to his house, stated that he had actually paid more for the conveyance of the material he had used than for the material itself.

Taking, therefore, the foregoing observations as a basis, and supposing a man to live here in the same style he would in England, it is more than probable that the purchase-power difference of his money in general would be in favour of England.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Provisions.—The principal bread made here is from coarse Indian corn meal, without salt, and so heavy that no one except the Scutarines, who are used to it from their infancy, can eat it with impunity.

Wheaten bread is made, but in a far less quantity.

The meat sold here is generally very inferior, and chiefly mutton and goat. Beef is also met with.

Fowls and geese are abundant.

The vegetables cultivated here are cabbages, onions, leeks, gourds, cucumbers, tomatoes, and kidney beans—all, for want of proper cultivation, very inferior.

The fruits are—melons, water melons, grapes, figs, walnuts, and chesnuts.

The beverages of the country are common red wine, made from grapes grown in different parts. This wine, which an Englishman would call vinegar, is the only one which a Scutarine will drink.

From the lees of the grapes, after the wine is extracted, a strong spirit is distilled, in quality about as unpalatable to an Englishman as the wine.

To give the prices of all the foregoing, from fluctuations almost unknown elsewhere, no calculation can be made that would not mislead. This is hardly to be wondered at in a place where no regulations control the markets except as regards the arms on the people.

Diet.—Beyond the Indian corn bread and the red wine, none of the other articles mentioned under the head of provisions, taken moderately, are hurtful.

During the autumnal months, however, when fevers are prevalent in some parts from the vapours and miasmata emitted from stagnant waters, from the influence of the sun, great moderation is necessary in regard to fruits and vegetables.

Clothing.—The clothing worn by the natives are made of a sort of thick white cloth, manufactured in different parts of Roumelia, somewhat resembling felt, and which

is worn both in summer and winter. No foreigner, however, can make use of it: all these wear clothing from Italy and Germany, chiefly of a very inferior quality, and, from the high cost of transport, comparatively dear.

Lodging.—Lodging here—that is, such lodging as an Englishman could put up with, is very difficult to find. There are no regular lodging-houses, so that when a person arrives for any length of stay he has either to find rooms in some house, generally over ventilated and badly drained, or to take a house that would always require a considerable sum expended on it to render it habitable.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The different qualities of ordinary labour here are—Indian corn cultivation, and assistance to masons and carpenters.

The former consist, in the country, of the villagers, and at certain seasons, when the corn requires hoeing, numbers arrive here for the purpose from the surrounding districts, and go away immediately afterwards.

Were, however, the vendetta system put down, the province would more than amply furnish this labour.

The carpenters and masons, both trades being concentrated in one individual, are from the district of Dibbra, in Central Roumelia.

Their workmanship is about on an equality with their pay (1*s.* 6*d.* per day without food); and as all, good and bad, receive the same, there is no encouragement for any more intelligent men.

The artisans here, who are of the most inferior description, take no pride in their work, from the small remuneration they get. The outlay of a man being commensurate with his means, and these being so small here, it may be imagined what the style of the work here is in general.

During the past six years many and able artisans from Austria, Italy, and Corfu have come here to endeavour solely to gain their livelihood, but it is not possible to point out one single individual that has succeeded, and almost all have left after losing the little they brought with them.

(Signed) R. READE.

SERVIA.

Consul-General Longworth to Earl Granville.—(Received November 28.)

My Lord, *Belgrade, November* 15, 1870.

MR. ARTHUR OTWAY having, by your Lordship's direction, transmitted for my guidance in a Circular despatch, under date of the 7th June, copies of two other despatches addressed to Her Majesty's Diplomatic Representatives abroad for Reports on the condition of the industrial classes in foreign countries, I have the honour to forward herewith inclosed to your Lordship a Report of Mr. Vice-Consul Watson, which, having been long conversant with its details, he was well qualified to furnish on the subject. To this I beg also to contribute a few prefatory remarks.

The stage of industrial development at which Servia has arrived is not such, I believe, as would hold out many inducements to the immigration of English operatives, artizans, or agricultural labourers, a statement justified, I believe, on social and political, as well as industrial grounds, and which implies no disparagement to the national character.

Servia possesses great natural advantages, and among others a fertile soil, but which, being thinly populated, is of little more than nominal value. Being intersected also by one of the principal watercourses of Europe, it presents great facilities for the exportation of pastural and agricultural produce. All these facilities, however, which might have tempted farm labourers to settle here, are frustrated by circumstances connected with the laws and civil administration of the country.

These, as is well known, exist under the name of capitulations, in virtue of treaties contracted, *ab antiquo*, between the Sublime Porte and the European Powers, whose subjects are thereby placed under the jurisdiction of their respective consular authorities. They are not, in these circumstance, and unless naturalized, allowed to purchase or hold landed property. But for some time past the immunities conferred by the capitulations, which

have been greatly restricted, are generally deemed of doubtful advantage.

The Russian Government, for political considerations most probably, has renounced them altogether; and the Austro-Hungarian, for similar motives, have also proposed a convention for the purpose. As a condition of land tenure, however, the Servians insist on residence in Servia. But I do not think, on the whole, the prospects of a settler in Servia are encouraging at present. The class of peasant proprietors accustomed to hold their own against Turks or Franks are not very neighbourly, and view strangers with a jealous eye, and there being no wealthy landlords, or even farmers on a considerable scale, no employment presents itself for hired agricultural labourers.

Where there is nothing to speak of in the shape of manufactures, and capital and luxury undeveloped, there can be no field for skilled labour. The only branch of industry in which some few Englishmen have found employment is that of mining. Should operations of this nature be extended, it might suit the purpose of more to come out, since they are twice as well paid as those of Germany or other countries.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. A. LONGWORTH.

Inclosure.

Report by Mr. Vice-Consul Watson on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Servia.

SERVIA produces no manufactures, and presents few openings for European artizans, the only places where they are found being in the capital, Belgrade, and at the arsenal of Kragonievatz, where foreigners are employed as foremen of some of the departments, and a few English workmen who have come here under contract for the iron and copper mines of Madanpek. The reason of this is to be found in the non-development of the peasant's wants, from the low state of civilization.

The appearance of the streets of Belgrade, however, is almost European, but it is due to German artizans, and promoted by the desire of the Government, for

political purposes, to embellish the town, in order to make an impression on the inhabitants of the neighbouring Austrian and Turkish Slave provinces, by whom they wish Belgrade should be regarded as their future capital. The means they have used for this purpose has given an impetus to the building trade, which will be explained hereafter.

Almost every article is imported ready-made from Europe. Furniture comes from Pesth and Vienna; carriages as well. Hardware from Belgium and Austria; and even common crockery is brought from abroad and transported up the country.

The people of Belgrade wear European clothes, and thus give employment to German tailors and shoemakers, and these two trades furnish the best samples of foreign artizans.

A tailor, working under a master, living with and being fed by him, is paid from 1*s.* to 2*s.* a day; if he works by the piece at home, he can earn about 2*s.* 8*d.* to 2*s.* 10*d.*

Shoemakers live with their masters, though they are generally paid by the piece, and, besides their food, earn from 10*s.* to 15*s.* a week.

The native tailor, who makes clothes from the coarse, strong Bulgarian cloth worn by the better class of peasants, is fed by his master, and is paid by the year, his wages varying, according to his ability, from 5*l.* to 25*l.*

Sandal-makers work on the same terms, but then this article is generally made by the peasant himself on a winter's evening. His clothes also are often, and his linen always, homespun; and for the figured woollen stockings he wears the wool is first prepared and then knitted by his family.

Hats are worn in the capital, but are imported. The fez worn by the peasant come from Austria, though in some districts his head-dress is a simple sheepskin.

Joiners, whose trade is limited, earn about 3*s.* 4*d.* a day; if they live with their master, they are fed and get about 1*s.* daily.

Shopkeepers' assistants used formerly, in nearly all cases, to be related to the shopkeeper, and their manner of payment very difficult to ascertain; latterly, however, young men, either foreigners or Servians, who have served in the same capacity in Austrian towns, have

begun to be employed, and are paid what is considered here very good wages, receiving from 7*l.* 10*s.* to 25*l.* a year and their board. They in general speak two or three languages.

Tobacco cutters, cigarettes being used and cigars unknown, are boarded, and paid from 4*l.* to 20*l.* a year. Grocers' assistants about the same.

Wax-candle makers, who prepare the large candles used for devotional purposes, are boarded and paid from 4*l.* to 10*l.* a-year. The candles used for domestic purposes, however, are imported from Austria.

The largest class of foreign artizans here are those connected with the building trade, an impetus having been given to building at Belgrade by the Government lending money on mortgage on land and houses in the town. Foreigners are not allowed to own land or houses. A Servian, however, can borrow money on land to half its value from the Government at a lower than the usual market rate, and if with that money he builds a house and roofs it in, he can then make a second mortgage on the house to half its value, and even after that can make an arrangement with the builder to pay the cost of finishing over a short series of years. Thus has Belgrade become the town, *par excellence*, of Servia, and the building trade during the summer for the last few years has given employment to a large number of workmen from Austria.

Bricklayers and masons earn from 2*s.* to 4*s.* a-day, feeding themselves; their labourers, mostly women, get from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.*

Carpenters, from 2*s.* to 4*s.* a-day.

Plasterers and the men who colour the walls from 1*s.* 8*d.* to 4*s.*; and painters from 2*s.* to 6*s.*, without food.

These workmen build the brick houses that are seen in the principal streets of Belgrade; but there is another class of house common in the poorer parts of the town, and almost universal in the country, which is built of mud or mud and wattles; the men who do this work come from Macedonia and the borders of Albania, remain here the summer and return home on the approach of winter; they always work in couples, a man and a boy, and the two together earn from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* a-day; they feed themselves, living most penuriously.

Smiths' work by the year. There are Servian smiths,

who do rough work, shoe bullocks and horses after the Turkish fashion, and get from 4*l.* to 10*l.* a-year and their food. A locksmith is fed and paid besides from 10*s.* to 1*l.* a-week.

Bakers are of two kinds. Servians who make the black bread usually consumed, and who are fed and paid from 5*l.* to 20*l.* a-year; and the German bakers, who make breakfast rolls, white bread and pastry consumed by the rich; these are paid from 30*l.* to 40*l.* a-year and their food.

There are a few other trades, such as bookbinders and printers, but the number of hands employed is very small.

A bookbinder gets his food and from 10*s.* to 15*s.* a-week, and a compositor from 3*s.* 2*d.* to 4*s.* a-day and his food; but he is often paid by the 1,000 letters set up.

Waiters are those employed in the cafés, who are always foreigners, and are fed and paid from 5*l.* to 25*l.* a-year; and the men who serve in the country inns and lower class of wine shops, which are kept generally by people called Tzinzars, coming from the Provinces of Turkey; these last are paid much less.

Domestic servants are paid very high wages. Servians do not like this employment, so they are generally Austrian subjects, from 10*l.* to 20*l.* a-year, being generally paid for very bad servants.

Agricultural labourers come from Austria for the season, and even a few Bosniac Mussulmans are to be found mowing. Servia is rather a pastoral than an agricultural country, there being no larger farms or estates, and the peasant proprietor has with his family almost always strength enough to get in his own harvest and till his own ground. Near Belgrade, however, where there is occupation for them, field labourers are paid from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 1*s.* 10*d.* a-day. Mowers can earn from 2*s.* 8*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*, and haymakers from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 8*d.*

At the copper-mines of Madanpek, in the interior, there are some eight or nine Englishmen employed as foremen and overseers to the native workmen; they are paid from 7*l.* to 10*l.* a-month. The Austrian mining foremen there get about 3*l.* 10*s.* a-month; the common native miners and smelters from 1*s.* 8*d.* to 2*s.* a-day; the latter, however, can earn more, as they make seven days' work in the week. Labourers, to help at the mines, from

1*s.* 6*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.* Brick-makers (these are Austrians), 10*s.* the 1,000 bricks, everything being carted to them. A carter, working with a pair of ponies, his own property, earns from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* a-day. All the people employed at these works have houses and firing free, besides the above wages.

The men who take charge of vineyards near Belgrade clean and prune the vines and make the wine, are paid about 10*l.* a-year; but then they have a hut to live in, and are allowed to cultivate a small piece of ground and keep for their own profit a few pigs and fowls, and when the season does not require work to be done in the vineyard they can turn their hand to anything else. These men are generally Austrians.

An English artizan could not live so well in a town in Servia for the same money as he could in England; for, though meat is cheaper, it is of very inferior quality, bullocks never hardly being fattened, but killed when past work.

White bread is dearer than in England; black bread is cheaper and good.

Beer is good, but light and dearer, taking into consideration its strength, than in England; it is mostly imported from Austria; for a measure of beer, about a pint and a quarter, that an artizan pays a penny (5 kreutzers) for in Vienna or Pesth, 3*d.* is paid here.

The country wine is strong and cheap, and, though generally used too new for health, is the most wholesome drink here. Beer is only found in two or three towns near the Danube, but wine all over the country. Beer is a luxury of the rich; wine and a spirit made from plums the drink of the peasant and the workman.

Tobacco is grown in the country, and is of fair quality and cheap.

Coffee is rather dearer than in England; raw sugar and treacle unknown. Lump sugar, made from beet-root in France and from parsnips in Hungary, is used; it is dearer and not so sweet as English raw sugar. Tea is extremely dear, Russian over-land tea being used as a great luxury by the rich. All other small grocery articles wanted by an artizan are dearer.

Though there is a great deal of inferior coal in the country it is not worked; it is unknown as an article of house-fuel, being used only by the Austrian steamers

plying on the Danube and by smiths. Coal-dust, such as is thrown away at the pit's mouth, or at the best used for glass-works, &c., in England, is here worth 15*s.* a ton. Wood is used instead for domestic purposes, and, from carriage being dear, costs twice as much as coal does in England for firing; it is cheapest in summer, the roads then being good; in winter, with the roads impassable and the rivers frozen, it is very dear. An artizan, who lives from hand to mouth, would thus find his fuel a great item of winter expenditure.

Common vegetables and fruit are cheap and plentiful in summer; in winter, potatoes and cabbage are only procurable. The latter is made, after the German fashion, into "sauerkraut." Potatoes are the same price as in England.

Lodgings are dear and bad, and the poorer people live in the lower parts of the town. The better class of house is very dear. The houses all over the country consist only of the ground-floor, and there is no house-drainage.

Though main drains run through the principal streets of Belgrade, they have no communication with the houses, and are only of use to carry off the rain, which sometimes falls in torrents in summer.

The extremes of heat and cold are very much greater and the variations more sudden than in England. The heat is exhausting in summer, and an English workman could not work so hard as he does there. Out-door work is impossible sometimes for a couple of months in winter.

Belgrade being almost surrounded by the marshes of the Save and Danube, the inhabitants are very subject to intermittent fever; this is aggravated among the lower classes of natives by unwholesome and poor living. Foreigners also suffer from it; but as they generally live better and are of the Catholic, which does not enjoin such long and severe fasts as the Greek orthodox religion, they are generally healthier. The lower class of Servians keep the fasts religiously, eating only for weeks together vegetables, river fish, and haricots, so the old and very young die mostly at these times, and the able-bodied just after the fasts from gorging.

This should be a warning to the foreign artizan to

live temperately and well; not indulging in beer in hot weather, which is very dangerous, but drinking rather wine, which is more stimulating. Almost every disease here resolves itself into intermittent fever. Cotton or flannel, not linen, should therefore be worn as underclothing and woollen as outer clothing. Fatigue from overwork or a chill invariably brings on fever.

Education would be impossible for the children of an English artizan. There are schools for the natives in every Servian town. A Catholic school, frequented by the children of Austrian subjects, as well as a Lutheran one for Prussians, are to be found at Belgrade. Instruction, however, is of a very primary character.

As before stated, there are very few trades required, and the work done is in all of them of very inferior quality, and there is no demand for good work. Respectable artizans, though the wages are higher than in the neighbouring Austrian States, do not come here, because from the few employers of labour work is not to be obtained regularly; and from the small luxuries which he is there accustomed to being dearer, lodgings, &c., worse. The refuse of Austrian labour thus only finds its way here and does not proceed into the interior; the workmen who come are principally composed of runaway apprentices or men of dissolute and bad character. Any work out of the common it is impossible to get done.

(Signed) J. WATSON.

Belgrade, November 10, 1870.

SMYRNA.

Consul Cumberbatch to Earl Granville.—(Received November 15.)

My Lord, *Smyrna, November* 4, 1870.

In acknowledging the receipt of despatch dated 7th June last, I have now the honour to transmit herewith my Report on the position of the industrial classes within this district.

Although great pains have been taken to obtain the necessary information, I am obliged to state that the number of the population is only approximative, as no positive information can be obtained from the authorities.

I have, &c.

(Signed) ROB. WM. CUMBERBATCH.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Cumberbatch upon the Position of the Industrial Classes in the Vilayet of Aidin.

It is almost impossible to obtain reliable information on questions of statistical facts in this country. There is no census, nor are there any local official registers, nor other documents, on which dependence can be placed; no means whatever, in fact, by which any correct information may be obtained of the actual condition of the people, their employment and resources, than what may be gathered from personal observation, or by inquiries among those who have had opportunities by long residence and experience, to acquire some knowledge on the subject.

It will be readily understood that, under these circumstances, it is very difficult to define the position of the artizan and industrial classes in this country as regards the proportion they bear to the other classes, and the resources on which they may be dependent.

The population of this province (*vilayet of Aidin*),

excepting the town of Smyrna, to which reference will be made hereafter, are chiefly engaged in agricultural pursuits, probably to the extent of 70 to 80 per cent. of their whole number, and this may be taken as a fair average for the whole of Asia Minor.

The land in the vicinity of towns and villages is generally divided into very small tenements, which the proprietors cultivate on their own account, satisfied if they merely obtain returns equivalent to fair wages.

The large estates also are rarely cultivated by hired labourers, except on a very small scale. The land is generally either rented in small lots for a fixed quantity of the crop produced, or the owner of the estate furnishes the land and seed, and pays a portion of the harvest expenses, receiving in return one-half of the crop.

There is likewise another difficulty in establishing the rate of agricultural wages, as the value of the crops varies very considerably in proportion to the distance from the sea coast; the expense of transport, owing to the state of the roads, being so high as greatly to reduce the price of produce in the growing district, and, of course, wages must also fluctuate in proportion. But then again, although the nominal value of labour may be much less in the more distant districts, the actual purchase power of money may be more than proportionately great as regards, at least, the more essential articles of food.

That the cultivation of land is a profitable occupation in this country is proved by the mere fact that productions have not decreased notwithstanding the immense drawbacks to which such occupation is subject. These drawbacks may be briefly summed up thus:—

1. Inequitable distribution of taxes, and oppressive mode of levying the direct taxes, and collecting the tithes; the poorer classes being entirely at the mercy of the local administration and tithes' farmers,

2. There are no local Courts of Justice in which any confidence can be placed, except by those who are able to pay for what they are justly entitled to.

3. The bad state of the roads and consequently very high rate of transport.

4. The very primitive and negligent system of husbandry, and the system of "Boguk" as turning out cattle before the crops are secured.

5. The general very unhealthy state of all the rich plains within about 100 miles of the coast, owing to stagnant marshes and land-springs where miasma rises during the hot summer months, engendering intermittent and pernicious fevers. This description of land comprises nearly all the cotton grounds of Anatolia.*

All these impediments to the extension and improvement of agriculture might be easily removed if the Turkish Government were to act with decision and energy, but until they are removed, this country is by no means a desirable residence for immigrants intending to devote their attention to farming.

Probably not more than one-tenth of the arable land of Asia Minor is now under cultivation; and the unhealthy state of the rich plains may chiefly be attributed to their being thus allowed to lay waste, as cultivation, however slight, would always induce a certain amount of surface drainage. Very few of the owners of the large estates live on their property, nor do they lay out any capital in improvements, their only object being to obtain the best revenue they can without any expenditure. Many of these estates consist of very rich land, easily irrigated, and with many other advantages, and may be purchased at prices not exceeding 20*s.* to 30*s.* per acre.

The average wages of agricultural labourers in this neighbourhood are about 1*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.* per day; much of the light field work, such as hoeing, weeding, and gathering cotton, &c., is done by women and children, at 6*d.* to 1*s.* per day; the labourers finding their own food. In large farms, cheaper labour may, perhaps, be obtained by hiring by the month or year, and providing food from the farm, and clothes.

The dwellings of the peasantry in the villages generally consists of rude huts, built of stone and mud, with unglazed windows and mere rough wooden shutters, the roof being formed of trunks of trees placed across the wall, and covered with a sort of thatch of reeds or bushes, battered down with earth and gravel, until rendered impervious to the rain. Materials, especially wood and stone, may generally be obtained with little

* There are no regularly educated medical men in the interior of this country; those who practise as such being generally ignorant persons.

trouble and at trifling cost, and good cottages might be built without much expense, but as a rule there is very little industry among the peasantry of Asia Minor beyond what is required to obtain their immediate wants, as any show of improvement in their worldly position would immediately cause an unproportionate rise in their taxation.

The food of the peasantry consists principally of coarse bread, various preparations of wheat and barley, maize, vetches, beans, onions, and a few other vegetables, olives, milk, eggs, and occasionally rice, also fruit and coffee and tobacco—but meat is a luxury of which they partake very rarely. They are, as a class, very frugal and sober.

The population of the town of Smyrna is variously estimated at 160,000 to 190,000. According to the best authorities it is about, say—

Turks	43,000
Rayahs.—Greeks	56,000
Armenian	8,000
Latins	3,700
Jews	20,000
Foreign nationalities, of which about 25,000 are Hellenes, and many of the others natives of this country, who have obtained foreign protection	37,000
	167,700

Of the above, from 3,000 to 5,000 may be reckoned as a floating population, principally from the neighbouring islands and other parts of Turkey.

What proportion of the population may be considered as coming under the strict definition of "industrial classes" it is difficult to ascertain, but in rough figures, those best able to form an opinion, estimate these numbers as follows, viz :—

	About	Average Rate of Wages per Day.	
		s. d.	s. d.
Carpenters	1,000	2 6 to	4 6
Joiners	800	2 6	6 0
Masons	900	2 6	5 0
Mason's labourers	2,500	1 6	2 6
Stonecutters	700	2 0	5 0
Plasterers	450	2 6	5 0
Blacksmiths	500	1 8	5 0
Plumbers, glaziers, and tinmen ..	150	1 8	5 0
Brass and iron-founders	50	2 0	5 0
Painters	100	2 6	7 0
Tailors (but mostly piece-work) ..	600	2 6	5 0
Boot and shoe makers	1,000	2 6	5 0
Needlewomen	600	0 6	1 8
Dyers	200	Uncertain	
Tanners	100	Uncertain	
Coopers	100	1 8	2 6
Stevedores, for stowing ships	300	2 6	5 0
Boat-builders and caulkers	100	Uncertain	
Rope and twine makers	100	Uncertain	
Bookbinders	30	Uncertain	
Printers	70	1 6	3 6
Millers	300	1 6	2 6
Employed in wine-making establishments ..	500	Uncertain	
Bakers	1,000	1 6	3 0
Boatmen	500	Uncertain	
Porters	1,500	Uncertain	
Gardeners, vine-dressers, and agricultural labourers	3,500	1 4	2 6
Labourers dependent on casual work ..	4,000	1 0	2 6
Various trades not mentioned above ..	1,500	Uncertain	
	23,150		
		Per Month.	
		£	£
Good stone-trimmers in the flour-mills obtain, according to their skill ..	..	5 to	10
Engine-drivers, &c., in the mills, hydraulic pressing establishments, cotton gin factories, &c.	..	8	14

On the two railways, "Smyrna to Aidin," and "Smyrna to Cassaba," wages paid are about as follows:—

	£ s. d.	£ s. d
Engine drivers, per month	18 0 0 to	20 0 0
Chief mechanics, ditto	30 0 0	..
Second mechanics, ditto	22 0 0	25 0 0
Ditto, workmen, per day	0 2 6	0 6 0

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Chief blacksmith, per month ..	18	0	0	20	0	0
Ditto, workmen, per day	0	2	6	0	5	0
Chief carpenters, per month . ..	14	0	0	16	0	0
Ditto, workmen, per day	0	2	6	0	5	0
Master plate-layers, per day . ..	0	15	0		..	
Ordinary plate-layers, ditto . ..	0	3	0	0	7	0

Rents are high in the town of Smyrna; a small house may be had at 12*l.* to 20*l.* per annum; small apartments of two rooms, 10*s.* to 12*s.* per month; single rooms, 5*s.* to 8*s.* per month; cheaper lodgings may be obtained in some less desirable quarters of the town, but those in the lower khans and in the Jewish quarters are over-crowded and very filthy, totally unfit for any respectable family.

The supply of labour for some time past has been more than equal to the demand, and there is at present no opening whatever for skilled workmen from England; those employed are always engaged in England by contract.

No railway works are now going on in this Province.

Living at Smyrna is much more expensive than it was formerly, nearly double what it was before the Crimean War, as the high prices then established have since been maintained for nearly all the necessaries of life, and persons with small incomes may economise quite as much, if not more, in England than they can here.

The natural resources of this country ought to be conducive of a great extension of industrial occupation; the working of mines, the whole of Asia Minor being rich in minerals;—the wine trade, which might be increased to almost any extent, and very excellent and cheap wine produced; various manufactures, of which the raw materials are products of this Province, such as cotton, silk, wool, flax, hemp, several valuable dyes, &c.; but the existing fiscal regulations are suicidal to native industry. Among the many obstacles to its developement may be mentioned the fact that all raw materials taken for local consumption are charged with 8 per cent. internal duty, and the article manufactured from them again charged the same rate of duty when sent from one part of Turkey to another, but in both cases, if exported to a foreign country, they only pay 1 per cent. duty.

These burdens are independent of any indirect taxes and other administrative obstructions.

Unless emigration into Asia Minor could be supported by the strongest possible national guarantee as to protection and management, I foresee nothing but disaster and misery awaiting those who may be induced to avail themselves of any proposals of this nature, for even where the Government appears desirous of commencing an undertaking with integrity, it is impossible to find disinterested and patriotic persons to carry out the views of the Government, however advantageous to the Imperial Treasury those undertakings might prove.

(Signed) ROB. WM. CUMBERBATCH.

Smyrna, November 3, 1870.

UNITED STATES.

BUFFALO.

Consul Hemans to Earl Granville.—(Received November 28.)

My Lord, *Buffalo, November* 14, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to inclose herewith my Report on the industrial classes of Buffalo, compiled in conformity with Mr. Otway's Circular of June the 7th.

As all the materials for this Report have had to be brought together by unaided personal inquiry and inspection, I trust that indulgence will be extended to any shortcomings which it may show.

I have, &c.

(Signed) H. W. HEMANS.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Hemans on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Buffalo.

THE proportion borne by the industrial to the other classes here cannot be accurately ascertained. The State census, indeed, of 1865, classifies the population "by occupations," but does not carry this classification beyond the division into counties, and is, even then, very incomplete. Assuming this incompleteness, however, to be distributed with tolerable impartiality throughout its various details, the number of agriculturists and professional men in this county of Erie will stand to the number engaged in industry and trade in the ratio of 2 to 3. In Buffalo itself the proportion of agriculturists is no doubt smaller than in the little towns and villages which make up the rest of the country population; and if, allowing for this, we put the ratio for Buffalo, with its 120,000 inhabitants, at 4 to 7 instead of 2 to 3, we shall have in this town about 44,000 persons belonging to the professional and agricultural classes, and about 76,000 persons supported by industry and trade.

The condition of the industrial classes here is, on the whole, very prosperous; as a glance at the generally neat and comfortable cottages they inhabit clearly shows. These cottages are, as a rule, built of wood ("frame cottages"), painted white, with a porch before the door, and green Venetian blinds to the windows. They are almost invariably detached, standing, gable-end, towards the street, in little gardens (averaging 16 to the acre), well planted with vegetables. The smallest sized cottage ordinarily contains three rooms (a living-room and two bed-rooms), with a wood shed, to which, in the hot season, the moveable cooking-stove is transferred. In the next size the sitting-room and kitchen are distinct; and the skilled artizan, with high wages, and an average family to support, has probably a third bed-room, and a "guest-chamber," which is sometimes let out to a boarder. The cost of building a substantial four-roomed cottage averages from 350 to 400 dollars (70*l.* to 80*l.*), and the rent of such a cottage is from 6 to 7 dollars a-month (30*s.* to 35*s.*)* The smaller sizes rent as low as 4 dollars (16*s.*) a-month, and the larger, with gardens of perhaps 8 to the acre, go up to 10 and 12 dollars (2*l.* to 2*l.* 8*s.*) Of course when the working man builds his own cottage—by no means a rare case—the cost varies with the greater or less solidity of the structure. A (German) plasterer tells me that he values his five-roomed cottage at 1,200 dollars (240*l.*), and has insured it for 1,000 dollars (200*l.*) An Irish "shoveller," again has purchased his six-roomed cottage for 500 dollars (100*l.*) Upon his cottage, valued at 1,200 dollars, and the "lot" (25 feet by 130 feet at 2*l.* 12*s.* per foot) on which it stands, the plasterer pays taxes to the amount of near 40 dollars a-year (8*l.*), and when the Town Council ran a sewer through his street, his quota towards the expense was a lump sum of 62 dollars (12*l.* 8*s.*), which had to be paid, *plus* interest, within six months. He calculates that the advantages of gas and water will cost him, together, about the same sum, and that the paving of the street will entail a charge of somewhere about 120 dollars (24*l.*)

Cottages are usually taken by the year, but the rent

* I have calculated the dollar throughout this paper at 4*s.* English, as the premium on gold is now so low that a further fall is not likely to have any perceptible effect upon prices.

is paid monthly. The proprietors, however, of the great iron works here build cottages for their own men, which they let out on the understanding that the tenancy is to terminate with the engagement. In the neighbourhood of a large rolling mill, employing between 600 and 700 men, a whole village has been thus erected, all the inhabitants of which hold their houses on this sort of contingent tenure.

The freehold of a cottage, renting at 4 dollars a month, sells at 400 to 500 dollars (80*l.* to 100*l.*) A cottage renting at 10 dollars per month will fetch from 1,000 to 1,200 dollars (200*l.* to 240*l.*)

Single men find board either with an artizan family who have a spare room, or in one of the numerous second-class boarding houses and hotels scattered over the town. The average charge for board, with a separate bedroom, is 5 dollars (1*l.*) a-week. If the bedroom is shared with another man, the charge is from 4 dollars to 4 dollars 50 cents (16*s.* to 18*s.*) These boarding-houses vary to a certain extent, in neatness and comfort, according to the nationality of their frequenters. The food they supply is plentiful, but, generally speaking, of inferior quality and very ill-cooked.* American cookery, ignoring the substantial joint, universally affects "made dishes," and as the maker, in the houses referred to, is inevitably destitute of the requisite skill, a miserable caricature of a French dinner is the result. The working-man fresh from England finds much to complain of here, and one of these stated to me the other day that, in spite of the plentiful table, it was a long time before he could simply satisfy his hunger at his boarding-house.

Except the immediate neighbourhood of the large iron-works and some of the streets near the harbour, no part of the town is specially inhabited by working-men. Their little white cottages are seen everywhere, side by side perhaps with some stately villa, in this irregularly built city. The working-man is thus enabled to locate himself, generally speaking, within easy reach of his work. Where the case is otherwise, he makes use of the

* The general poorness of the butchers' meat consumed in Buffalo is probably due to the fact that the animals slaughtered are brought from a great distance, and are usually mere prairie cattle, not fattened expressly for the market.

"street-cars," which run on the principal lines of communication, and charge 3*d.* for the course.

With regard to the healthiness of the lodgings at the working-man's command, it may be stated generally that the well-paid artizan has nothing to complain of in this respect. It is different, however, with the common labourer, who lodges in some of the low saloons near the docks, or takes rooms in one of the "tenement houses" which are found here and there, even in respectable streets. These tenement houses in particular are generally though not invariably, in a wretched state of dirt and malaria—owing chiefly to the fact that the regulations applying to them remain little more than a dead letter, as is inevitable where sanitary inspectors are "elected" for brief periods and solely on party qualifications. But even the common labourer, if sober and industrious, can find healthier lodgings than in these houses, which are chiefly resorted to either by Irish families whom unhappy experience at home has rendered indifferent to dirt and discomfort, or by men who, through dissipation or feeble health, have lost their places in the struggle for employment.

Buffalo is, on the whole—at least for the healthy—a healthy town. Its situation, on a plane slightly inclined towards the lake, is favourable for drainage, and its system of sewers is a very good one. But the arrangements for getting rid of the sewage at its outlets are extremely defective, and would undoubtedly be seriously prejudicial to the healthiness of the town but for the sanitary advantages secured by its general plan. With a population of barely 120,000 the city spreads itself over an area of nearly 40 square miles, giving an average of only 3,000 inhabitants to the square mile. Of course, a considerable portion of this area is occupied by streets which are streets only in name. But, as a rule, connected rows of houses are limited to the business centres of the town. On receding from these centres, detached houses become the rule, and this with the poorer as well as the wealthier classes. Moreover, in the business centres themselves, the streets have great breadth and are so disposed, in straight lines, crossing each other at right angles, as to give the freest circulation of air. These parts of the town, however, are rarely used for private residence, but are chiefly appropriated

to offices and shops. Fresh air, therefore, is almost as plentifully supplied to the citizens of Buffalo as it is to dwellers in the country, and it is to this that the low death-rate of the town is probably in great measure, due.* The climate, again, of this part of the State has the reputation of exceptional equability. The mean winter temperature is 28°, and the mean summer temperature is 69°. But the changes of temperature are often abrupt and extreme, especially in the spring and fall of the year. The former season is most trying for strangers, owing to the dampness of the air from the melting snows and to the bitter winds across the lake, which at this end is covered with ice up to the middle of April, and even occasionally to the beginning of May. Great care must consequently be taken both to resume woollen under-clothing in good time and not to lay it aside too soon, as the occurrence of hot days long before the regular set-in of warm weather often tempts the stranger to do. This simple precaution is almost the only one which need be given to the emigrant from England. He will do well, however, in selecting his lodging, to keep away from the lower parts of the town near the lake, as the typhoidal fevers prevalent throughout the eastern States are usually of a more virulent type in those localities than on the higher ground.† With regard to temperance, the common-sense rules accepted at home are applicable here with all the greater stringency that the climate is itself more stimulating. A tendency to extremes, to extreme heat and extreme cold, with brief periods of transition, may indeed, be stated as the chief characteristic of this climate. Young children and persons of delicate temperment, therefore, require additional care in guarding against its vicissitudes.‡

* The average mortality of Buffalo is given as 1 in 50; but the registration of deaths is so imperfect that this estimate cannot be relied upon as exact.

† From some obscure cause typhoid fever has been endemic for several years back in New England and in the northern parts of New York, while in other parts of the Union it is replaced by malarious fever.

‡ During a six years' residence in Buffalo I have never known the thermometer to fall below −12° or rise above +90°. But this locality is noted for high winds, and a friend who has lived a good deal in Minnesota tells me that the not uncommon temperature there of 30° or 40° below zero is much less trying than even a few degrees above zero with a Buffalo storm. I have known the entire business of the town suspended for a whole day by the bitter intensity of these winds.

Wages in Buffalo, although gradually falling, are still very high in comparison with their rate before the war. The day's wage of a skilled artizan averages from 1 dollar 50 cents to 4 dollars (6*s.* to 16*s.*), and even reaches, in exceptional cases, 6 dollars (24*s.*). In the great ironworks and machine-shops of the place, blacksmiths and foundrymen receive from 2 dollars to 3 dollars 50 cents (8*s.* to 14*s.*); machinists, from 2 dollars to 4 dollars (8*s.* to 16*s.*); rollers, from 4 dollars 50 cents to 6 dollars (18*s.* to 24*s.*). Puddlers, heaters, and nailers, are usually paid "by the ton," and can earn from 4 dollars to 5 dollars 50 cents (16*s.* to 22*s.*), according to the expenditure of muscle and skill. In the large organ and melodeon factory, employing about 150 men, the highest wage (4 dollars 50 cents = 18*s.*) is paid to tuners, who are almost invariably Germans. Turning to trade, we find carpenters, bricklayers, and tailors receiving from 1 dollar 50 cents to 3 dollars 50 cents (6*s.* to 14*s.*); house-painters and plasterers from 1 dollar 75 cents to 3 dollars (7*s.* to 12*s.*); masons and stone-cutters from 2 dollars 50 cents to 4 dollars (10*s.* to 16*s.*). Shoemakers usually work by the piece, and earn, on an average, from 2 dollars to 3 dollars (8*s.* to 12*s.*) a day. "Clerks in stores" (shopmen) average 9 dollars (36*s.*) a week; domestic servants, from 1 dollar 75 cents to 4 dollars (7*s.* to 16*s.*, a week. The wages of lake sailors depend upon the demand for freight. At present they are 1 dollar 50 cents (6*s.*) a day, or 40 dollars (8*l.*) a month; but in 1864 they were 3 dollars 50 cents (14*s.*), and at one time even 5 dollars (1*l.*) a day. An English sailor, however, assured me that the average home pay of 4*l.* a month is really much better than double the amount here. In England men are engaged for long terms, while on the lakes they are paid off as soon as the ship enters port, the unloading being done entirely by dock labourers. As the trips only average twelve days in length, a man may lose a week or ten days out of every month in looking out for new engagements, and then during five months of the year navigation is altogether suspended by the cold.

Unskilled labourers receive from 1 dollar to 1 dollar 50 cents (4*s.* to 6*s.*) per day. The dock labourer, however, (generally an Irishman) whose work is uncertain as well as fatiguing, is paid from 30 cents to 35 cents (1*s.* 3*d.* to

1*s.* 5½*d.*) per hour, and can make, when fully employed, his 4 dollars (16*s.*) a day. Elevator-men (shovellers) receive from 3 to 4 dollars (12*s.* to 16*s.*) per 1,000 bushels. Strong, active shovellers can earn as much as 5 dollars (1*l.*) a day. Work of this kind, however, is entirely suspended during the winter, and is only plentiful when the grain trade is exceptionally flourishing, which is, just at present, far from the case.

The ordinary working day here is ten hours. When the agitation in favour of an eight-hour day first began, some of the leading manufacturers substituted payment by the hour, at the rate of one-tenth of the ordinary wage for payment by the day, thus anticipating the difficulty, and effectually shelving the question.

Wages are usually paid weekly, unless where the job is short, as with dockyard work. But engagements, as a rule, are simply by the day, so that the workman may, at any moment, either receive his discharge or change his master. In large establishments, however, where a steady business is done, a week's notice is generally expected on either side, but cannot be enforced.

Comparing wages before and since the war, it is singular to find that the price of unskilled labour has increased in a greater ratio than that of skilled labour. This may, perhaps, be explained by the much greater attraction of enlistment for the comparatively ill-paid and unsettled day-labourer than for the highly-waged and steadily-employed artizan, and the consequently excessive drain upon the ranks of the former. Such a state of things cannot, of course, be durable, and is, indeed, already on the decline.

The local rise of wages since 1860 shows the following average :—

House-painters, plasterers, &c.	60 per cent.
Carpenters	70 „
Blacksmiths	75 „
Common labourers . ..	80 to 90 „

With regard to the cost of living, a comparison of the difference between 1867 and 1870, referring both years to 1860 as the standard, give the following results :—

	Rise compared with 1860.	
	1867.	1870.
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Dry goods .. .. about	50	35
Groceries	52	45
Boarding	75	Unchanged.
Flour	100	25
Provisions generally	100	90
House-rent	100	90

The fall in dry goods is chiefly upon cottons; that in flour is explained by the low prices ruling in Europe, and the increasing supplies poured in from the Great West.

With regard to house-rent, the reduction is almost entirely in favour of the wealthier tenants, and scarcely affects the working man's cottage at all.

From a comparative inspection of the above tables, it would seem to result that the present condition of the labourer is, relatively speaking, inferior to his condition before the war; and such a fact is the conclusion arrived at by the various writers who have dealt with the subject, and especially by the late Special Revenue Commissioner, Mr. Wells, in his very able and exhaustive Reports.

From the personal inquiries, however, which have been necessary for the compilation of this paper, I have learned, to my surprise, that at any rate the majority of both the employers of labour and the working men themselves, in this town, hold a directly opposite opinion.

The exorbitant rise in prices caused by the war did, no doubt, I was told, produce at first a considerable amount of discomfort and embarrassment among the labouring classes. But as this rise was unequal, affecting some articles of consumption much more than others, a compensating economy in the use of those articles most affected soon brought the domestic expenditure into equilibrium again, and allowed the substantial advantages of a steady rise in wages, and of continuous employment, to have their full weight. The unusual number of boys, too, who found work during the reduced supply of labour, at wages quite equal to the former adult tariff, helped to swell the family earnings.

The statistics of the local savings' banks supply a striking argument in the same direction. In 1859 Buffalo possessed four such banks, which returned, in the aggregate, 11,255 accounts open on the 1st January, 1860, with an average credit of 153 dollars 91 cents to each depositor. In 1868 the number of savings banks had risen to six; the number of accounts open on the 1st January, 1869, was 39,503, and the average credit on each of these accounts was 227 dollars 46 cents. The number of open accounts, therefore, has increased by above 250 per cent. since the war, and the average credit to each depositor has increased by about 42 per cent.*

With regard to the purchasing power of money here, I should say at least one-third should be deducted from the nominal value of American wages before comparing them fairly with the wages paid at home. Many English working men with whom I have conversed upon this subject have not hesitated to put this deduction at one-half. But allowance in these cases must always be made for offended prejudices and for human nature's predilection for "a grievance." Taking the various necessaries of life in their turn, and London prices as the term of comparison, the English emigrant will find butcher's meat about 20 per cent. cheaper than at home; bread, milk, and vegetables pretty much the same; butter and eggs full 40 per cent. dearer. Beer 25 per cent., tea and sugar 50 per cent., coals 60 per cent. dearer, with at least double the quantity required for consumption. Gas 200 per cent. dearer, and the lodgings from 100 to 250 per cent. He will also have to pay double for his tools of equal quality. The additional cost of clothing is more difficult to calculate, as the very inferior durability complicates the question, but since the fall in "dry goods" it may probably be put at about 150 per cent. A labouring man, with a family of eight children, told me the other day that his children's shoes cost him from 8*s.* to 10*s.* a pair, and seldom last longer than six weeks—a statement which my own experience fully confirms. After reviewing with this man, however, the great saving on the necessaries of life in his native country (Germany) as compared with his adopted country, and asking him how much better off he considers himself by the move,

* The increase of the population between 1860 and 1869 may probably be put at about 35 per cent.

he replied, in substance, "I am ever so much better off. My earnings in Germany (as a plasterer) would be barely 3*s*. a day, while here they are from 11*s*. to 12*s*. My eldest boy, who is just sixteen, makes his 4*s*. a day already—more than I could have done done myself at home—and pays me something for his board. Even my youngest of thirteen earns 8*s*. a week while he learns a trade. In Germany neither of the two would bring home a sixpence. In short, if I were there I should, with my large family, be little better than a pauper, while here I have saved enough already to purchase a comfortable cottage, and I have something in the savings' bank still." It is worth noting that in this, as in every similar case which has come within my own personal knowledge, the labourer's cottage has been purchased with savings laid by since 1860.

With regard to the openings for the introduction of labour from without, I find the opinion general among employers here that the present annual average of applicants is pretty well equal to the demand even for skilled labour; while, as far as unskilled labour is concerned, the place has, thanks to the constant influx of Irish and Germans, reached the point of saturation.* At the opening of navigation, but not later, there is always a good chance of employment for sailors on the lake. Servant girls are in demand—"general servants" more than any others, as no American, in these parts at least where "servant-galism" is specially rampant, will keep a greater number than he can help. In other directions the field of employment for women seems considerably narrower than at home. The "dry goods" and "variety" stores (linen draperies and fancy goods shops) are in almost undisturbed possession of the peculiar American type of the "young man of insinuating address," and none but whiskered faces are seen at the railway and telegraph offices. The confectionaries, book-binding, clothing,

* It is a common notion among English emigrants that the moment they set foot upon American soil work and high wages may be had for the mere asking. This is a great mistake. If a man goes straight to the Far West, indeed, he will have no difficulty in getting an engagement as a farm labourer or a drover. But in the Eastern States he may remain weeks, even months, without employment, unless he has friends on the spot to push his interests. If the emigrant has such friends, well and good; otherwise some capital to fall back upon while waiting for his chance of employment is absolutely indispensable.

printing, and cigar-making establishments give employment to a certain number of young women and girls, at wages varying from 8*s*. to 1*l*. a week, and a skilful dressmaker or milliner receives 4*s*. a day. But the American artizan prides himself on keeping his womankind at home. His wife attends to the domestic duties, and his girls go to one of the excellent schools provided by the municipality, generally remaining there longer than their brothers and therefore carrying their studies further. In contradistinction to the American, the thrifty German makes all the available members of his family work—women, girls, and boys; and it is worth noting that a very much higher per-centage of savings' bank depositors and of cottage freeholders is supplied by the German element of the population than by any other.*

The theories and experiments to which the straitened condition of the labouring classes in Europe has given rise could scarcely be expected to waken more than a feeble echo in this prosperous country. Three different attempts have been made within the last few years to start co-operative stores here, but the working classes regarded those experiments with an indifference which rendered their failure inevitable. A carpenters' workshop started on the same principles proved similarly unsuccessful.

Some notes which I had put together upon trades unions in Buffalo have been already published in Mr. Ford's Report on the industrial classes (pp. 364—366) and need not be repeated here.

With regard to the quality of the work done and the workman's pride in its excellence, I am generally told that new arrivals do better and more careful work than the natives or old settlers, but that his superiority cannot be counted upon as durable. The restless craving for change—born of the storied marvels of the Great West and its short cuts to fortune—which has become endemic in America, soon seizes upon the new comer also. Even if personally inaccessible to the sentiment, its effects upon

* There can be scarcely a doubt that the patient accumulative Germans, with their natural antipathy to rash speculation, are destined to become ultimately the wealthiest element of the population of these States, and therefore the most influential. Their rapid increase in number already almost enables them to snatch the casting vote out of the hands of the Irish, with whom they possess no sympathy whatever.

all his fellow workers infallibly react, in the long run, upon his own morale, and he becomes, as the phrase is, "Americanized;" he loses all artistic interest in his work, and is satisfied with fulfilling his work to the mere letter. I cannot learn of any "particular class of artizans whose work can be depended upon as good from the sense of honour they have in executing it." The Germans are, however, undoubtedly in good repute as workmen, both in regard to steadiness and intelligence; and as they keep much apart from the rest of the population, inhabiting a distinct quarter of the town, and encouraging the practice of their own language by German theatres, concert halls, libraries, and beer gardens, it may be safely concluded that the process of "Americanizing" goes on much more slowly with them than with the English and Irish.

(Signed) H. W. HEMANS.

Buffalo, November 11, 1870.

CALIFORNIA.

Consul Booker to Earl Granville.—Received December 1.)

My Lord, *San Francisco, November* 9, 1870.

In accordance with the instructions contained in Lord Clarendon's Circular of the 7th of June, I have now the honour to submit a Report upon the condition of the industrial classes of this State. I regret that I should have to close it so soon as the Census Returns for 1870 will be completed in a few days, and would have furnished data for information which it is now impossible to procure. The condition of the artizans and industrial classes has been one of unparalleled prosperity; and as yet the Trans-Continental Railroad has effected them but little, although it must tend eventually to equalize the value of labour throughout the Northern States, if not the entire union. In 1868 the Legislature passed an Act making eight hours a legal day's work, and this caused a conflict between capital and labour which was maintained with much firmness on both sides; it would appear to have been a suicidal act on the part of the working-classes to raise the issue just as the railroad was on the point of completion, and when a reduction in the rate of wages was looked for as an immediate consequence. The conflict caused some suffering amongst the working-classes, and occasioned the suspension of numerous projected enterprizes. After many months the majority of the members of the different unions became convinced that the point could not be carried; and rather than remain longer unemployed, gave up their connection with their several leagues, which resulted in a gradual removal of activity and the employment of nearly all at the previous current wages, working, therefore, 10 hours. Three or four of the largest leagues have been able to maintain their position; the bricklayers, plasterers, and stonemasons still continuing to find work at full wages for the day of 8 hours. The stevedores, ship-carpenters, caulkers, and riggers' unions soon effected a compromise upon 9 hours. In some branches of industry there has been a slight falling off in the rates of wages, but amongst the trades comprising the greater portion of the mechanics there has been no appreciable

decline. One curious feature of the depression caused by the conflict referred to is, that instead of a falling off in the deposits of the Savings and Loan Societies of the City, as was necessarily to be expected, there was an increase between the 1st of July, 1869, and the same period this year, during which time the conflict was at its height, nearly as great as in the twelve months preceding. It was no doubt caused by the depression in real estate, keeping people from purchasing, and inducing some to sell, to seek a more steady investment. The deposits on the 1st July, 1869, amounted to 4,954,616*l.*, on account of 31,974 depositors; and on the 1st July, this year, to 5,968,422*l.*, on account of 37,316 depositors. Some of the Unions rather, than concede on the eight hours' arrangement, permit their members to take reduced wages, but the greater number of members combine to take contracts. It has been feared that the labour-market would be seriously effected by competition from Chinese, but although there are about 12,000 in the City, and 40,000 in the State, they have been absorbed in the various industries without producing any sensible effect on the value of white labour. It is estimated that 30,000 are employed in ordinary labouring work, and the remaining 10,000 as domestic servants, and in divers trades.

When the Chinese first appeared on this coast some fifteen years ago, they confined themselves chiefly to the mining district, taking possession of "placer" claims abandoned as worked out by the American or European miner; later on they were to be met with in great numbers as domestic servants and laundrymen; the first skilled labour they were employed at was in working the looms of the woollen mills, to which handicraft they were found to adapt themselves with great facility. The early completion of the Trans-Continental Railroad was due to the thousands of Chinamen employed; they proved to be admirably suited to the work, displaying not only great intelligence and industry, but capacity to endure the extremes of heat and cold necessarily encountered in the Sierra Nevada and Rocky Mountains. The wages of a Chinaman in domestic service ranges from 2*l.* per month for an active boy, to 5*l.* for an experienced servant; the wages for those employed either in skilled or unskilled labour is usually 4*s.* per day. *Not-*

withstanding mail steamers make monthly voyages between this port and China the immigration of Chinese is not greatly in excess of the departures and deaths. The Labour Exchange established in April 1868, and supported by voluntary contributions, (no charge being made to employee or employed) till April last, when it fell under the more immediate charge of the State, under an Act passed in the last Legislature, has done a good deal to check the strengthening and growth of the trades' unions. Through this institution, under the direction of eight trustees, elected annually, the Governor of the State, Mayor of the City, and President of the leading benevolent societies, acting *ex-officio*, employment has been found for 18,300 men and 7,321 women; and it has proved a great boon to the newly-arrived immigrant and the employers of labour throughout this State and the neighbouring State of Nevada. Several of the Unions prohibited the apprenticeship of boys, but in all the iron-working and printing establishments, and in fact in most of the leading trades, apprentices are now taken for four or five years. In the different factories and industrial works of this city there are employed about 8,000 hands, distributed amongst the following establishments :—

	Hands.
Axle grease manufactories	11
Billiard table „	35
Bellows „	6
Box „	218
Brass foundries	80
Breweries	218
Broom manufactories	35
Boot and shoe manufactories	660
Candle „	18
Cordage and rope „	50
Carriage and waggon manufactories	355
Chemical works	30
Cooper and barrel manufactories	43
Coffee and spice mills	55
Cigar manufactories	1,597
Distilleries	35
Dry docks	37
Flour mills	159
Furniture manufactories	254
Gas meter „	5
Glass cutting and staining works	9
Glass works	50
Glove manufactories	20
Glue „	10
Hat and cap manufactories	28

	Hands.
Horse collar „	135
Hose and belting „	14
Iron foundries and boiler shops	953
Iron door, shutter, and safe shops	71
Ink manufactories	6
Lead and shot works	14
„ oil works..	20
Last manufactories	10
Maccaroni „	20
Match „	40
Malt houses	28
Mirror silvering works	5
Pianoforte manufactories	6
Pyrotechnic works	5
Powder „	12
Pickle and fruit preserving works	214
Rolling mills	115
Salt „	33
Saw manufactories	45
Saw mills and sash door manufactories.. ..	523
Sugar refineries	225
Slipper manufactories	95
Soap „	60
Type foundries	50
Steam marble works	25
Tanneries..	125
Tool and file manufactories	49
Trunk „	67
Tub, pail, and wooden ware manufactories ..	68
Vinegar manufactories	10
Wire work „	21
Woollen mills	750
Whale oil works	3
Yeast powder works	14

The wages paid in the leading mechanical and industrial works are given in the following tables :—

IRON FOUNDRIES AND MACHINE-SHOPS.

	s.	*d.*	
Moulders	12	0	per day.
Machinists, best	12	0	„
„ second	10	0	„
„ ordinary	8	0	„
Blacksmiths	12	0	„
„ helpers	8	0	„
Riveters	11	0	„
Boiler makers	12	0	„
„ helpers	8	0	„
Flangers	12	0	„
„ helpers	9	0	„
Engineers	12	0	„
Pattern makers	12	0	„
" assistants	10	0	„

			s.	d.	
Carpenters			11	0	per day.
Brassfounders	10s.	to	11	0	„
Brass fitters and turners			12	0	„
„ assistants	8s.	to	10	0	„
Painters, 1st class	14s.	to	16	0	„
„ 2nd class	9s.	to	10	0	„
Labourers			8	0	„

Apprentices, 1st year, 16*s.* per week; 2nd, 24*s.*; 3rd, 32*s.*; 4th, 40*s.*; taken usually at 17, and required to remain 4 years.
Hours of labour, 7 o'clock to noon, and 1 to 6 P.M.; extra time paid for.

Glass Works.

	£	
Glass blowers work by piece, and make from	£20 to 35	per month.
Batch mixers, 1st class	15	„
„ 2nd class	12	„
Master Teasers	20	„
Assistant „	£12 to 15	„
Pot makers	20	„
„ assistants	15	„
Packers	15	„
Blacksmiths	20	„
Carpenters	20	„
Demijohn coverers	8*s.* to 10*s.*	per day.
Skilled boys	3*s.* to 4*s.*	„
Labourers	8*s.*	„
Firemen	30*l.*	per month.

Men employed by month and by day work 10 hours.

Sugar Refineries.

	£	
Boilers, good	30	per month.
„ 2nd class	15*l.* to 18	„
Melters	8*l.* to 10	„
Blow-up men	8*l.* to 10	„
Charcoal tank men	8*l.* to 10	„
Sugar-house men	8*l.* to 10	„
Men in charge of different departments ..	11	„
Labourers	8*s.*	per day.

Ten hours each except boilers, who frequently work 6 hours on and 6 hours off.

Gas Works.

	s.	
Firemen	12	per day.
Second men	10	„
Yard men	10	„
Purifiers, 1st class	12	„
„ 2nd class	10	„
Engineers	12	„
Carpenters	14	„
Masons	20*s.* to 22	„
Blacksmiths	14*s.* to 16	„

	s.	
Pipelayers	10	per day.
Gasfitters	10*s.* to 12	„
Lamplighters	10*l.*	per month.
Labourers	8	per day.
Foremen	16*s.* to 20	„

10 hours work each day.

Water Works.

	£	
City hands—		
Chief engineer	50	per month.
Steam engineers	20*l.* to 30	„
Firemen	16	„
Coalheavers	14	„
Foremen	25	„
Reservoir tenders	20	„
Metre „	20	„
Flume „	20	„
Carpenters	20	„
Porters	16	„
Ostlers	16	„
	s.	
Caulkers	10*s.* to 12	per day.
Tappers	12	„
„ helpers	10	„
Teamsters	10	„
Labourers	8	„

Country hands—	£		
Carpenters	17*l.* to 20	per month	and found.
„ helpers ..	10	„	„
Foremen	20	„	„
Reservoir tenders	15	„	„
Pipe painters	15	„	„
Fence keepers ..	10*l.* to 11	„	„
Flume walkers	13	„	„
Teamsters	12	„	„
Labourers	7	„	„
Foremen of ditto	10	„	„
Superintendent of works ..	40	„	„

About 140 hands usually employed.

Printing and Publishing Trade.

	£	*s.*	*d.*	
Bookbinders work by piece and make ..	4	14	6	per week.
Finishers, ditto	6	0	0	„
Compositors (male), ditto ..	4*l.* to 5	0	0	„
Ditto (female) ditto	2*l.* to 3	0	0	„
Bookfolders (female)	1*l.* 16*s.* to 2	4	0	„
Pressmen	3*l.* to 4*l.* and 5	0	0	„
Stereotypers	5	0	0	„
Type-casters	5	0	0	„

About 600 men and 70 females are employed in city trade.
Men work 10 and women 9 hours.

Silk and Felt Hat Manufactories.

	s.	
Bodymakers work by piece and make	24	per day.
Silk finishers, ditto..	32	„
Curlers, ditto	40	„
Crown sewers (women)	12	„
Trimmers (women)..	16	„
Foremen	8*l.*	per week.

A very strong association.

Breweries.

	£	
Brewers	14	per month.
Cellarmen	12	„
Barrel washers	12	„
Drivers	20	„
Ditto assistants	10	„
Coopers	14*s.*	per day.

Chiefs of Departments, 25 to 30 per cent. advance on the above rates.

Work 10 hours each day.

Custom Bootmakers.

	£	s.	£	s.	
Fitters (male) work by piece and make .	3	12 to	4	16	per week.
Ditto (female) ditto	2	0 to	2	8	„
Bottoming, ditto			4	0	„

No retail co-operatives. About 300 employed in Custom work in city.

Work 10 hours.

Furniture Manufactories.

	£	s.	£	s.	
Upholsterers work by piece and make ..	4	0 to	7	0	per week.
Cabinetmakers, ditto	3	2 to	3	12	„
Varnishers, ditto	3	6 to	3	12	„
Unskilled workmen		..	0	9	per day.

All work 10 hours.

Tanneries.

	£	
Yard hands	7	per month and found.
Beam ditto	8	„ „
Curriers	9	„ „

Boys, according to capacity.

Work 10 hours.

Carriage Manufactories.

	s.	
Blacksmiths	18	per day
Ditto helpers	9s. to 10	„
Wheelwrights by contract work earn ..	10s. to 14	„
Painters, ordinary, ditto	10	„
Ditto, carriage, ditto	20	„
Trimming hands	9s. to 16	„

* All work 10 hours.

Woollen Mills and Worsted Factories.

	s.	d.	
Wool sorters (Chinamen)	3	9	per day and found.
Washers (ditto)	3	9	„ „
Ditto superintendents (white) ..	12	0	per day.
Dyers	10	0	„
Pickers (Chinamen)	3	9	per day and found.
Carders (ditto)	3	9	„ „
Ditto, superintendents (white) ..	16	0	per day.
Spinners, Weavers, Burlers, Fullers (Chinamen)	3	9	per day and found.
Knitters, boys and girls (white) ..	6	0	per day.
Finishers, male and female.. ..	8	0	„
Dressers, Press tenders, Drawers, Packers, Brushers (Chinamen) ..	3	9	per day and found.
Engineers	24	0	per day.
Ditto assistants	16	0	„
Mechanics	12	0	„
Labourers	10	0	„

In miscellaneous trades the following wages are paid :—

Bricklayers, 20*s.* per day, 8 hours' work per day.
Plasterers, 16*s.* per day, ditto.
Stonemasons, 18*s.* to 20*s.* per day, ditto.
Hod-carriers, 10*s.* per day, ditto.
Plumbers and gasfitters, 16*s.* per day, 10 hours.
Painters, 16*s.* per day, ditto.
Door and sash factory—
  Men, 10*s.* to 16*s.* per day, according to skill.
  Boys, 4*s.* to 6*s.*
Carpenters, 16*s.* per day, non-union men, 10 hours.
Grist millers, 18*s.* to 20*s.* per day, 12 hours.
Tanners, 10*l.* to 12*l.* per month, 10 hours.
Ship carpenters, 16*s.* to 20*s.* per day, 9 hours.
Caulkers, 18*s.* to 22*s.* per day, 9 hours.
Riggers, 16*s.* to 20*s.* per day, 9 hours.

Stevedores, 20*s.* per day, usually 9 hours; 8 hour league breaking up.
Maltsters, 18*s.* to 20*s.* per day, 10 to 12 hours.
Coopers, 12*s.* to 14*s.* per day, 10 hours.
Box factory—
Men, 8*s.* to 16*s.*, according to skill, 10 hours.
Boys, 18*s.* to 30*s.* per week.
Steam saw and planing job-work hands, 12*s.* to 16*s.* per day, 10 hours.
Cigar manufacturers: white men make from 56*s.* to 72*s.* per week; Chinamen 30*s.* to 48*s.*

The demand for domestic servants continues to exceed the supply, and it is very difficult to get females to go into the country; hence the employment of a great number of Chinese men and boys, the latter being frequently employed as nurses to children. The wages of nursemaids are ordinarily 3*l.* to 4*l.*, of housemaids 4*l.* to 5*l.*, and of family cooks 5*l.* to 8*l.* per month.

The following exhibits the wages paid in two of the leading quartz mills and mines, and one of the largest saw-mills of this State:—

QUARTZ MILL AND MINE IN GRASS VALLEY NEVADA COUNTY.

Mill Hands.

Engineers	16	per day.
Amalgamators	16	„
Ditto assistants	12	„
Carpenters	16	„
Concentrators	14	„
Feeders	11	„
Rock breakers	11	„
Labourers	8*s.* to 10	„
Watchmen	10	„

Blanket washers (Chinese), 6*s.* 10*d.* per day.
Greasers (ditto), 6*s.* 10*d.* per day.

Mine Hands.

Assistant engineers	12	per day.
Blacksmiths	12*s.* to 14	„
Ditto assistants	10*s.* to 12	„
Miners	10*s.* to 12	„
Carmen	10	„
Chiefs of gangs	14	„
Shovellers	8*s.* to 10	„
Landers	11	„
Drill boys	8	„

QUARTZ MILL AND MINE IN AMADOR COUNTY.

Mine Hands.

	s.	d.	
Foremen	32	0	per day, or 30*l.* per month.
Miners .. ..12*s.*, a few	13	0	„
Strikers	10	6	„
Bucket fillers .. 9*s.* to	10	6	„
Windlass men	9	0	„

Surface Hands.

	s. s.	
Blacksmiths	13 to 16	per day.
Ditto assistants	8 to 10	„
Engineers	12 to 14	„
Bucket men	9 to 10	„
Carpenters	16 to 20	„
Ditto assistants	9	„
Labourers	9	„
Watchmen	10	„

In the above mills and mines about 200 men are employed, all work ten hours.

To show the difference in wages between the gold mines and the silver mines of the neighbouring State of Nevada, I give a table of wages paid by the "Hale and Norcross Mining Company" of Nevada:—

	s. s.	
Head miners	20 to 24	per day.
Watchmen	16	„
Engineers	17 to 24	„
Blacksmiths	17 to 24	„
Brakemen	16 to 20	„
Ditto assistants	8	„
Pitmen	16	„
Top carmen	18	„
Carpenters	20 to 24	„
Ditto assistants	13 to 16	„
Labourers	16	„
Firemen	20	„
Oremen	20	„
Pumpmen	20	„
Miners	16	„
Carmen	16	„
Assayers	60*l.*	per month.
Ditto assistants	31*l.*	„

150 men employed work 10 hours, miners sometimes 8 hours' shifts. There are nearly 350 quartz mills at work in this State.

SAW MILL IN MENDOCINO COUNTY.

	£		
Head circular sawyers and filers ..	14	per month	and found.
Log haulers, head mulay sawyers, and head planers	12	,,	,,
Tail circular sawyers	10	,,	,,
Tail mulay sawyers, head edgers, packers, firemen	9	,,	,,
Assorters, markers, screw turners, tail edgers, and slab cutters	8	,,	,,
Edging burners and other labourers ..	7	,,	,,
Engineer, machinist, and blacksmith ..	25	,,	,,
Saw straightener and filer	20	,,	,,
Hands shipping and piling lumber ..	7	,,	,,
Foremen of gangs and teamsters ..	14	,,	,,
Choppers, chainmen, jackscrew men; all work 10, some 12, hours per day.	9	,,	,,

There are in the State over 300 saw-mills.

The following is the scale of wages paid in this State to railroad employés :—

Engineers of passenger trains, 25*l.* per month.
Engineers of freight trains, 20*l.* ditto.
Firemen, 12*s.* per day of service.
Wipers, 10*s.* ditto.
Section men, foremen, 10*s.* ditto.
Ditto, labourers, 7*s.* ditto.
Carpenters and machinists, 12*s.* to 17*s.* ditto, according to skill.
Conductors of passenger cars, 24*l.* per month.
Conductors of freight cars, 20*l.* to 22*l.* ditto.
Baggage-masters, 12*s.* per day of service.
Brakemen, 10*s.* ditto.
Wharf hands, 8*s.* ditto, for day work.
Ditto, 10*s.* ditto, for night work.

The following list shows the principal classes of workmen ordered and supplied at the Labour Exchange between April, 1868, and September, 1870, and may be regarded as a fair criterion of the wages paid in the interior of the State :—

	No. of Men Ordered.	No. of Men Employed.	Wages Ordered.
Bakers	92	73	6*l.* to 8*l.* per month and found.
Blacksmiths ..	531	408	10*s.* to 16*s.* per day.
Boot and shoemakers	213	130	6*l.* to 10*l.* per month, chiefly piecework.
Bricklayers ..	185	113	16*s.* to 20*s.* per day.
Butchers	74	65	6*l.* to 9*l.* per month and found.
Coal miners ..	42	36	3*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* per ton.
Cooks	1,015	764	4*l.* to 14*l.* per month, according to ability.
Cabinetmakers ..	158	112	10*s.* to 14*s.* per day, chiefly piecework.
Carpenters ..	1,943	1,743	12*s.* to 16*s.* per day, 10 hours; 8 hours system dying out.
Farm labourers ..	2,969	2,209	5*l.* to 6*l.* per month and found, in winter; 8*l.* to 9*l.* and found, during harvest.
Foundrymen ..	20	18	6*s.* to 9*s.* per day.
Gardeners ..	424	344	5*l.* to 6*l.* per month and found.
Generally useful ..	293	187	5*l.* to 6*l.* ditto.
Harness-makers ..	72	39	7*l.* to 10*l.* ditto.
Horseshoers ..	37	23	10*s.* to 12*s.* per day.
Labourers ..	6,259	5,353	6*s.* to 8*s.* per day, or 5*l.* to 6*l.* per month and found.
Lumbermen ..	824	346	6*l.* per month and found.
Masons	74	58	16*s.* to 20*s.* per day.
Milkers and dairymen	487	278	6*l.* to 8*l.* per month and found.
Miners	952	544	8*l.* per month and found; 10*s.* to 12*s.* per day.
Painters	335	248	10*s.* to 14*s.* per day.
Stone-cutters ..	14	12	16*s.* to 20*s.* ditto.
Sheep-shearers ..	114	70	2½*d.* to 3*d.* per head.
Shepherds ..	105	80	5*l.* to 6*l.* per month and found.
Teamsters ..	647	560	4*l.* to 10*l.* ditto.
Tinsmiths ..	84	74	10*s.* to 14*s.* per day.
Waggon-makers ..	244	107	12*s.* to 16*s.* ditto.
Wheelwrights ..	85	44	12*l.* to 16*l.* per month and found.
Waiters	545	398	4*l.* to 7*l.* ditto.
Wood choppers ..	1,465	1,008	6*l.* per month and found; 5*s.* to 11*s.* per cord according to size.

I am unable to do more than give the daily or monthly wages of the various trades. I believe generally good mechanics can find nearly constant employment, but amongst the less skilled and altogether unskilled labourers there must be considerable allowance made for unemployed time. The information I have received from a variety of sources is so contradictory, and so great an unwillingness exists to give information in quarters where reliance could be placed upon it that I have given it up as a hopeless task to attempt to estimate the actual average monthly earnings of the working classes.

Very few native-born Americans are to be found employed in unskilled labour in the cities, and a large proportion of the mechanics throughout the State are foreigners; it is, in some measure, to be attributed to

the disposition of Americans in Eastern States to seek their fortunes in the west, where farming offers attractions more alluring than the continuous daily work of an artizan. Western men of the labouring class invariably prefer to work on farms to any other employment, and the high rate of wages soon enables them to start a farm of their own. The number of farm labourers required in this State in proportion to the land cultivated is less than in any other part of the Union. It probably does not exceed one hand to the hundred acres. A great deal of soil is light, permitting the use of gang ploughs (ploughs with more than one share), and on the lightest lands the seed is distributed by the plough in front of the shares; nothing more has to be, or perhaps I should more correctly say, is done until the grain is ready for the sickle, when a heading or reaping machine is used, and the threshing-machine follows it; the grain is at once bagged and left on the field, in many cases till wanted for market or the winter rains commence.

Very few females are employed in trades, or in other than domestic service; a female co-operative printing establishment exists in this city, and in some of the printing-offices in the interior women are employed, but otherwise they are confined mainly to the occupations regarded by all as especially belonging to them.

In this city the arbitrary and selfish action of the Trades' Unions, referred to before, in refusing to admit apprentices to the various trades, has laid the foundation of a serious evil; a great number of boys, from 12 to 18 years of age, are living in a most demoralized condition, engaged in committing petty larcenies, and seeking refuge at nights in empty shanties or under the wharves, who would have, under happier circumstances, been taking the initiative the apprenticeship system offers to become respectable and practical members of society.

The following are the leading Unions in this State:—

Bakers.
Barbers.
Bootfitters.
Bricklayers.
Cartmen.
Coopers.
Fishermen.
Hat finishers.
House carpenters.
House painters.
Iron moulders.
Knights of St. Crispin.
Labourers.
Lumber stevedores.
Metal roofers.
Newspaper carriers.

Painters.
Plasterers.
Plumbers and gasfitters.
Riggers.
Sailmakers.
Ship joiners.
Ship caulkers.
Shipwrights.
Stonemasons.
Wood turners.

The principal Co-operative Societies are the—

Boot Fitters.
Journeymen Boot and Shoe Manufacturers.
Printers.
St. Crispin Boot and Shoe Manufacturing Company.
Women's Printing.

In the Legislature of 1868 an Act intituled the "Mechanics' Lien Law" was passed, which is of a nature to protect very thoroughly the artizan and labourer; the Act gives every artizan, builder, contractor, lumber merchant, labourer, or other person performing labour upon, or furnishing materials, of any kind to be used in the construction, alteration, or repair, either in whole or in part, of any building, wharf, bridge, ditch, flume, railroad, waggon road, mining claim, aqueduct to create hydraulic power for mining or other purposes, or any other structure, or who shall perform labour in any mining claim, a lien upon the same for work or labour done or materials furnished at the instance of the owner of the building or other improvement, or of his agent. For the purposes of the Act, every contractor, sub-contractor, architect, builder, or other person having in charge the construction, alteration or repair, either in whole or in part, is to be held to be the agent of the owner.

The land upon which any building or other improvement as heretofore described shall be constructed shall also be subject to the liens created by the Act, if the person who caused such building or other improvement to be constructed owns the estate in fee simple, if by any other tenure than his interest therein only shall be liable to the said lien. The claim of the contractor must be filed in the office of the County Recorder within sixty days after the completion of the contract, and of the workmen and others entitled to a lien within thirty days, and suit must be commenced within ninety days after filing of the claim, or, if credit be given, within ninety days of the expiration of the credit; but no lien can be

continued in force for a longer term than two years by any agreement to give credit.

The free-school system is very perfect in this State; in this city we have primary, grammar, cosmopolitan, and high schools, which afford an education not alone suitable to the position of an ordinary mechanic, but offering the opportunity of furnishing the scholar with a knowledge of the classics and some of the modern languages.

In the country there are few places where a public school is not within reach.

Houses occupied by the Labouring Classes, and their Mode of Living.—Mechanics, if married, usually occupy neat frame cottages, the rent varying from 3*l.* to 4*l.* per month, including water and taxes; ordinary labourers occupy smaller houses less neatly furnished, which are rented at from 2*l.* 5*s.* to 2*l.* 15*s.* a-month. The tenement house system has scarcely yet been adopted, but two or three large buildings, in every way fitted for the purpose, are now in course of erection in the city. Single men almost invariably live in boarding-houses, at a cost, for board and lodging, of from 4*l.* 10*s.* to 6*l.* per month.

The cost of providing the necessaries of life is not a greal deal more than in England; but clothing and imported articles generally are dearer than in New York, and from 50 to 100 per cent. over what they can be procured for in England.

The working classes usually live very much better than they would do in England, denying themselves scarcely anything in the shape of meats, vegetables, and fruits. In the boarding-houses everything in season the market affords is provided.

A considerable number of the labourers in this city and in the larger towns of the State own the houses they live in; the formation of Homestead Associations has assisted them in this, as these Societies purchase large tracts of land, and sell them in plots of 25 by 100 feet, receiving payment in monthly instalments extending over two or more years. The following are the current prices of provisions, &c., in San Francisco :—

	s.	d.		s.	d.	
Beef	0	5	to	0	9	per lb.
Mutton	0	5		0	8	„
Veal	0	6		0	9	„
Pork, fresh	0	6		0	8	„
Ditto, salt	0	7		0	7½	„
Corned beef	0	4½		0	7	„
Venison	0	6½		0	9	„
Hams and bacon ..	0	9		1	0	„
Salmon, fresh	0	4		0	7	„
Ditto, smoked	0	4½		0	6	„
Codfish	0	5		0	7	„
Sturgeon	0	2½		0	3	„
Sea bass	0	3½		0	4½	„
Perch	0	5		0	7	„
Flour	26	0		32	0	per barrel.
Bread	0	3½		0	4	per lb.
Butter	1	6		3	0	„
Cheese	0	8		1	1	„
Eggs	2	0		2	6	per dozen.
Potatoes, Irish	0	1		0	2	per lb.
Ditto, sweet	0	1		0	1½	„
Other vegetables ..	0	1½		0	4	„
Coals	60	0		80	0	per ton.
Wood	20	0		36	0	per cord.
Coal oil				2	0	per gallon.

Tea, coffee, and sugar 25 to 30 per cent., more than in England.

An attempt was made last year to start co-operative stores, but it did not meet with success.

The climate of California cannot well be surpassed in point of salubrity; the heat on the plains in the interior of the State is exessive in summer, but the atmosphere is so dry that labour can be performed without the system being exhausted to an extent beyond what the almost invariably cool nights can thoroughly restore. On the coast the sea breeze in summer keeps the temperature cool, so much so as to render it unsafe to wear anything but woollen clothing. The mean temperature at San Francisco is about 60°, the heat rarely exceeding 75° in the hottest part of the day; in winter the mean is 51°, and the thermometer seldom gets below freezing-point. In Sacramento, the capital of the State, situated about 100 miles from this city and 80 from the sea, the mean temperature in summer is 69° 5′, and in winter 46° 5′; in summer the thermometer will frequently range over 90°, and sometimes over 100°; very light woollen or linen clothing is required in summer, and woollen of ordinary thickness in winter. The rainy season usually commences

in the latter part of October, and continues till April or May; the following Table exhibits the rains (in inches) of each month at this city for the five years preceding the present year:—

Year.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1865... ...	3·97	0·78	0·60	0·73	0·42	...	...	...	0·25	0·14	3·06	0·55
1866... ...	11·05	1·47	2·55	0·12	1·85	0·15	...	...	...	...	2·64	13·15
1867... ..	6·64	6·22	1·68	1·85	0·04	...	...	...	0·06	0·56	3·10	12·85
1868... ...	9·50	6·13	6·30	2·31	0·03	0·22	...	...	...	0·15	1·18	4·34
1869... ...	6·35	3·90	3·14	2·19	0·08	0·02	...	...	0·12	1·29	1·19	4·31

To preserve health in California only very ordinary precautions require to be taken, fewer than in England. The country is not subject to any epidemics. The sea breeze in San Francisco, and on the coast, renders prevalent during the summer colds and influenza, but not to any serious extent. Some of the interior valleys are subject to malarious fevers, but they are not of a malignant type. The diseases which prevail in most places present here no peculiarities calling for comment. An immigrant arriving in the country experiences no difficulty in finding accommodation of a healthy character. In San Francisco the markets afford an abundance of meat, various kinds of vegetables, including all that are to be met with in England, and a vast assortment of fruit.

Quality of Work.—There are a great many first-class workmen in the State, and particularly in this city, and amongst them are many who do their work very faithfully, but, to take the artizans as a body, they do not show a spirit of emulation in regard to the character of their work. Some become demoralized by an accumulation of money, others find that the employers do not properly appreciate their endeavours to give character to their labour, giving a preference to quantity over quality, and again, others, with every disposition to take pride in their work, find themselves surrounded by such lukewarmness in regard to it on the part of their fellow-labourers, that they almost imperceptibly to themselves lose their earnestness. Some of the foundries and manufactories turn out work which could not well be excelled in any part of the world; and it would be unjust both to these employers and the employés to say that they do not

look equally with pride upon the product of their labour, but I fear these must be classed as an exception to the general rule. I give in the following Table the purchase power of money :—

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.						Purchase Power.		
	Local.		British.						
Labour—	D.	c.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Mechanics, say average per week	19	50	3	18	0		2	18	6
Unskilled labourers, ditto ..	11	0	2	4	0		1	13	0
Provisions—									
Meat, averaging per lb. ..	0	15	0	0	$7\frac{1}{2}$		0	0	$5\frac{5}{8}$
Fish, ditto	0	8	0	0	4		0	0	3
Potatoes, ditto	0	$2\frac{3}{4}$	0	0	$1\frac{3}{8}$		0	0	$1\frac{3}{100}$
Other vegetables, ditto ..	0	5	0	0	$2\frac{1}{2}$		0	0	$1\frac{7}{8}$
House Rent—									
Houses for mechanics, per year..	192	0	38	8	0		28	16	0
Ditto, ordinary labourers, ditto..	120	0	24	0	0		18	0	0
Board and Lodging in Boarding Houses—									
Single men, mechanics, per month	26	0	5	4	0		3	18	0
Ditto, labourers, ditto ..	21	0	4	6	0		3	4	6

I have assumed the purchase power of provisions, house rent, and expenses of living in boarding-houses to bear an exact converse relation to that of labour. The mechanic and labourer can, by referring to the return, see the relative cost of the various items as compared with the value of labour. He will see that meat at $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ per pound here is, according to the purchase power of labour, equivalent to $5\frac{5}{8}d.$ in England, and rent at 38*l.* 8*s.* is equal to 28*l.* 16*s.* It should be borne in mind, in regard to rents particularly, that the mechanics here occupy ordinarily a better class of house than they would do in England. Probably the rent paid by ordinary labourers represents very closely what a mechanic would pay if he were satisfied to live in the same style of house he would do at home.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The country calls for no particular care in regard to diet.

Clothing.—In San Francisco, and on the coast to the north, and partly to the south, woollen clothing of moderate thickness should always be worn; in the interior of the country the heat of summer compels the use of light clothing.

Lodging.—There is no difficulty experienced in finding houses and lodgings in the cities and towns in healthy situations, unless the locality is subject to malarious influences. In the mining regions, towns and villages are to be met with near to the working ground, but, if not, the proprietor of the mine provides a frame lodging-house for the use of his employés.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Brief Summary of Remarks.—The quality of the work turned out at some of the foundries and factories is excellent, but, on the whole, it is inferior to English work. Quantity is studied more than quality by many employers of labour, and this tends, with other causes enumerated in the body of the Report, to lessen the pride of the artizan in his labour.

The Census Returns, yet incomplete, give the population of the State at about 550,000 of both sexes and all ages. The following Table contains the returns of this city:—

	Above 15.		Under 15.		Born in California.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Whites	75,924	61,577	23,722	23,261	18,346	18,219
Chinese	9,777	2,040	877	271	189	131
Coloured	626	468	108	117	95	84

I have, &c.
(Signed) WM. LANE BOOKER.

GALVESTON.

Consul Lynn to Mr. Otway.—(*Received September* 21.)

Sir, *Galveston, September* 1, 1870.

WITH reference to your Circular of the 7th of June last, I have the honour to transmit herewith a Report having reference to Lord Clarendon's Circular of the same date, in regard to the purchase power of money, to matters connected with the preservation of health, and to the quality of work executed in the several departments of labour within this Consular District; and also a Report as to the wages and hours of labour in cotton manufactories.

I have, &c.

(Signed) ARTHUR T. LYNN.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Lynn respecting the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Galveston.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

Galveston.		Paper Currency.	
		Local.	British.
Labour—		Dolls. c.	£ s. d.
Artisan	per day	3 50	0 12 6
Unskilled labour	„	2 0	0 7 0
Provisions—			
Butchers' meat	per lb.	0 13	0 0 5½
Flour	„	0 4	0 0 1⅔
Bacon	„	0 24	0 0 10½
Board and Lodging—			
Artisan or labourer..	per week	8 50	1 10 0
Rent of Cottage—			
Two rooms and kitchen	per month	20 0	3 12 0
Four rooms and kitchen ..	„	40 0	7 4 0
Medical Attendance—			
Day visit..	each	4 0	0 14 0
Night visit	„	8 0	1 8 0

Purchase Power.

As every article necessary to a healthful life, with the exception of butchers' meat, is imported to this State, and has therefore a higher value than where produced or manufactured, the purchase power of money in Galveston may be estimated at 10*s.* in the 1*l.* for incomes varying from 200*l.* to 400*l.* On incomes less than 200*l.* the purchase power would necessarily decrease: a labourer earning 100*l.* a-year would not have a purchase power of more than 33⅓*l.*

Wages and cost of living in the country are in coin currency. House-rent and butchers' meat are cheaper; but as all other articles are dearer, the purchase power for the entire State of Texas may be approximately estimated as above.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—The emigrant should be moderate in his diet and avoid the use of spirituous drinks until he is acclimatized. He can obtain in the towns food to which he may have been accustomed, but in the country, wherever the population is sparse, his diet would be limited to pork, bacon, bread made of Indian corn, and potatoes. Flour, coffee, tea and sugar may be enjoyed by those who can afford to purchase them.

Clothing.—It will be necessary that the emigrant provide himself with suitable clothing to withstand the north winds during the winter, and the almost tropical heat of the summer. The European emigrant cannot labour with safety in the cotton or sugar fields; the exertion and exposure to the heavy dews and to the sun would prove very injurious, if not fatal to him. On the uplands, about 100 to 150 miles from the Gulf Coast, he can profitably and with comparative safety to his health employ himself in agricultural pursuits or in skilled mechanism, but in all cases, until the emigrant is acclimatized, he must be temperate in diet, labour, and exposure.

Lodging.—The emigrant will find healthy lodgings near his work, dwelling-rooms ventilated, free from miasmatic dirt, over-crowding and air-poisoning. The risk to the health of his family does not arise from these dangers but from climate disease. European emigrants to this State are liable to ague, remittent fevers, and what is termed congestive chill or fever, a disease very fatal if not promptly relieved by medicine. On the sea coast the emigrant is exposed periodically to epidemic yellow fever.

The quality of the work executed by workmen is

generally good, and they are competent in their several departments. Artisans take a pride in their work and put their character into it, inferior or bad work would occasion loss of employment.

Skill and trustworthiness of the workmen will always command high wages. I have seen accounts rendered by the iron founders in the city of Galveston in which the day's labour of a skilled artisan in the lathe department has been charged at 43*s*.

Report as to the Wages and Hours of Labour in Cotton Manufactories.

City Mills and Eureka Mills, Houston.

Wages.

Spinners for ring frames, 60 spindles per side, per side, 7½*d*.
Children from 10 to 14 years of age tend 2 to 6 sides.
Warpers, girls from 16 to 18 years of age, per day, 3*s*. to 4*s*.
Spoolers, „ 12 to 16 „ „ 2*s*. to 2*s*. 6*d*.
Dresser tenders, per day, 8*s*.
Weavers, per cut of 40 yards of ¼ sheeting, 1*s*. 3*d*.
Ditto, „ 39 yards of 7 oz. Osnaburg, 1*s*.
Lappers and carders, per day 4*s*. to 5*s*.

Labour.

Hours of Labour, 6·15 A.M. to 12 M., and 1 P.M. to 6·30 P.M.
On Saturdays the mills close at 5 P.M.

House-Rent.

Free for families where a given number work in the factories.

Comal Manufacturing Company, New Braunfels.

Wages.

Spinners, spoolers, winders, bobbin carriers, per day, 2*s*. 1*d*.
The same when children, per day, 1*s*.
Weavers of brown sheeting, 36 inches wide, No. 14 yarn, per yard, ½*d*.

Labour.

Ten hours a-day.

House-Rent.

For small families, 25*s*. to 40*s*. per month.

(Signed) ARTHUR T. LYNN.

Galveston, September 1, 1870.

LOUISIANA.

Acting Consul Briggs to Earl Granville.—(*Received September* 8.)

My Lord, *New Orleans, August* 22, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to inclose a Report on the condition of the industrial classes in this district, drawn up in accordance with the instructions contained in relation to the subject in Mr. Otway's Circular despatch dated June 7, 1870.

I have, &c.

(Signed) EDWIN F. BRIGGS.

Inclosure 1 in No. 4.

Report by Acting Consul Briggs on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the State of Louisiana.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

[Rate of Exchange being 6 dollars per £1 sterling.]

Price of Labour.	Wages, Currency.	Wages, British.
Cotton mill—	$ c. $ c.	£ s. d. £ s. d.
Weavers .. .. .. per day	1 25 to 1 50	0 4 2 to 0 5 0
Spinners .. .. .. „	2 0 ..	0 6 8 ..
Piercers, boys and girls .. „	0 50 0 70	0 1 8 0 2 4
Spoolers .. .. .. „	1 25 1 50	0 4 2 0 5 0
Card-room hands .. .. „	1 0 1 50	0 3 4 0 5 0
Foundry men .. .. „	3 0 ..	0 10 0 ..
Coppersmiths .. .. „	5 0 ..	0 16 8 ..
Brass moulders .. .. „	4 0 ..	0 13 4 ..
Finishers .. .. .. „	4 0 ..	0 13 4 ..
Blacksmiths .. .. .. „	4 0 ..	0 13 4 ..
Sheet-iron workers .. .. „	5 0 ..	0 16 8 ..
Pattern makers .. .. „	4 0 ..	0 13 4 ..
Engineers .. .. .. „	5 0 ..	0 16 8 ..
Machinist .. .. .. „	4 0 ..	0 13 4 ..
Boys, 14 to 16 years old, first year per week	3 50 ..	0 11 8 ..
Carpenters .. .. .. per day	3 0 ..	0 10 0 ..
Bricklayers .. .. .. „	3 0 ..	0 10 0 ..
Plasterers .. .. .. „	3 50 ..	0 11 8 ..
Slaters .. .. .. „	3 0 ..	0 10 0 ..
Painters .. .. .. „	4 0 ..	0 13 4 ..
Boot and shoe makers .. .. per week	12 0 25 0	2 0 0 4 3 4
Tailors .. .. .. „	15 0 25 0	2 10 0 4 3 4
Gas fitters .. .. .. per day	3 0 ..	0 10 0 ..
Plumbers .. .. .. „	3 0 ..	0 10 0 ..

Price of Labour.	Wages, Currency.		Wages, British.	
	$ c.	$ c.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Locksmiths .. .. .. per day	3 0	..	0 10 0	..
Bakers .. .. .. per week	12 0	20 0	2 0 0	3 6 8
Coopers .. .. .. ,,	12 0	18 0	2 0 0	3 0 0
Brewers .. .. per month and board	25 0	30 0	4 3 4	5 0 0
Cigar makers .. .. per month	15 0	20 0	2 10 0	3 6 8
Cistern builders .. .. per day	3 0	..	0 10 0	..
Confectionary hands .. .. ,,	2 0	..	0 6 8	..
Soap makers .. .. .. ,,	2 0	..	0 6 8	..
Oil works .. .. .. ,,	2 0	..	0 6 8	..
Marble workers .. .. ,,	3 50	5 0	0 11 8	0 16 8
Tin smiths .. .. .. ,,	2 50	5 0	0 8 4	0 16 8
Waggon makers .. .. ,,	3 0	3 50	0 10 0	0 11 8
Ice manufacturing .. .. ,,	2 0	..	0 6 8	..
Apothecary assistants .. .. per month	75 0	..	12 10 0	..
Dry goods clerks .. .. ,,	50 0	100 0	8 6 8	16 13 4
Steam-boat hands . per month and found	40 0	..	6 13 4	..
Common labourers .. per day and board	1 50	..	0 5 0	..
Railroad labourers .. ,,	1 50	..	0 5 0	..
Stevedores who stow cargo of vessels per day	4 0	..	0 13 4	..
Agricultural labourers on cotton and sugar plantations, with rations consisting of 1 lb. of pork or bacon per diem, with 1 peck of meal (Indian) every week, each family having for the purpose of cultivation besides, free of charge for rent, one or two acres of ground, together with the free use of mules and ploughs .. per month	20 0	..	3 6 8	..
Women, boys and girls, above occupation, agricultural .. .. per month	12 0	..	2 0 0	..

Cost of Provisions.

[Rate of Exchange being 6 dollars for £1 sterling.]

Articles.	Weights and Measures.	Prices, Currency.		Prices, Sterling.	
		$ c.	$ c.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Flour	per barrel	6 0	to 7 0	2 0 0	to 2 3 4
Corn meal	per lb.	0 5	..	0 0 2	..
Beef, roasting pieces	,,	0 15	..	0 0 6	..
,, soup	,,	0 10	..	0 0 4	..
,, steaks	,,	0 12½	..	0 0 5	..
,, corned	,,	0 15	..	0 0 6	..
Veal, fore quarter	,,	0 15	..	0 0 6	..
,, hind quarter	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..
,, cutlets	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..
Mutton, fore quarter	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..
,, legs	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..
,, chops	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..
Pork, fresh	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..
,, corned	,,	0 15	..	0 0 6	..
,, bacon sides	,,	0 15	..	0 0 6	..
,, hams	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..
,, shoulders	,,	0 15	..	0 0 6	..
,, sausage	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..
Lard	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..
Cod fish dried	,,	0 10	..	0 0 4	..
Mackerel, pickled	each	0 8	..	0 0 3½	..
Butter	per lb.	0 45	..	0 1 6	..
Cheese	,,	0 25	..	0 0 10	..

Articles.	Weights and Measures.	Prices, Currency.		Prices, Sterling.		
		$ c.	$ c.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
Potatoes	per barrel	2 50	3 0	0 8 4	0 10 0	
Rice	per lb.	0 5	..	0 0 2	..	
Beans	,,	0 8	..	0 0 3½	..	
Milk	per quart	0 10	..	0 0 4	..	
Eggs	per dozen	0 25	0 40	0 0 10	0 1 4	
Vegetables in great abundance, and very cheap all the year round, and of every known variety.						
Groceries—						
Tea (Oolong)	per lb.	1 0	..	0 3 4	..	
Coffee	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..	
Sugar, brown	,,	0 10	0 15	0 0 4	0 0 6	
,, white	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..	
Molasses	per gallon	1 0	..	0 3 4	..	
Syrup	,,	1 20	..	0 4 0	..	
Soap	per lb.	0 7	..	0 0 3	..	
Starch	,,	0 8	..	0 0 3½	..	
Fuel, coal	per barrel of 220 lbs.	0 75	..	0 2 6	..	
,, wood	Cord of 128 cubic feet	8 0	..	1 6 8	..	
Coal oil	per gallon	0 45	..	0 1 6	..	
Dry goods—						
Shirtings, brown	per yard	0 15	..	0 0 6	..	
,, white	,,	0 15	..	0 0 6	..	
Sheeting, brown	,,	0 40	..	0 1 4	..	
,, white	,,	0 40	..	0 1 4	..	
Cotton, flannel	,,	0 17	..	0 0 7	..	
Ticking	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..	
Prints	,,	0 10	..	0 0 4	..	
Mousseline de laine ..	,,	0 18	..	0 0 7½	..	
Satinets	,,	0 50	..	0 1 8	..	
Shoes or brogans	per pair	1 50	..	0 5 0	..	
Lodging—						
One room furnished ..	per week	5 0	8 0	0 16 8	1 6 8	
Two room tenement, unfurnished	per month	10 0	12 0	1 13 4	2 0 0	
Four ditto ditto ..	,,	15 0	20 0	2 10 0	3 6 8	
Six ditto ditto ..	,,	25 0	..	4 3 4	..	
Boarding	per week	4 0	6 0	0 15 0	1 0 0	
Washing	,,	1 0	..	0 3 4	..	
Miscellaneous—						
Wild ducks	per pair	0 50	1 0	0 1 8	0 3 4	
Wild geese	each	0 75	..	0 2 6	..	
Oysters	per 100	0 50	..	0 1 8	..	
Venison	per lb.	0 20	..	0 0 8	..	
Turtle	,,	0 20	..	0 0 8	..	
Fresh fish of infinite variety ..	,,	0 15	..	0 0 6	..	
Beverages—				2 10 0	..	
Ale	per barrel	15 0	..			
French wine (claret) ..	per cask of 60 or 62 gallons	59 0	75 0	8 6 8	12 10 0	
Food for a family consisting of man and wife, with four or five children, comprising bread, butter, tea, coffee, sugar, milk, fresh meat, once a-day, and vegetables ..	per week	10 0	..	1 13 4	..	
Suit of clothing for a man ..	..	10 0	..	1 13 4	..	

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Food of the best quality, in great abundance, free from adulteration, and of every variety, is obtainable, coming, as it does, from every part of the country, far and near, from the extreme north, and from the tropics; the facilities for supplying this place and adjacent localities are uncommonly great, owing to the peculiar situation of New Orleans close to the sea-board of the Gulf of Mexico, and nearly at the mouth of the most important navigable river of the world, in close propinquity to the West Indies, and in constant communication with Central and South America, from which places, in a short time and expeditious manner, the various products daily arrive by sail and steam-vessels, while the whole Continent of North America is tributary to it by river and rail communication.

The same diet is in vogue here as in England, and the same rules will govern here as do there for those who aim at the preservation of health. In the agricultural districts every kind of farm product can be had. It is proper to remark that wholesome, generous living is requisite in a country and climate where there is a natural tendency to debilitation as in this.

During the seasons of winter, spring, and autumn, that is to say, for seven or eight months of the year, any reasonable diet, similar to that of all northern countries, is recommended, and even during the heats of summer it does not vary much here, although more suitable food, such as soups and stews made from a mucilaginous vegetable named okra, with tomatoes, fowls, soup-meat, crabs, &c., is consumed to a great extent, found easy of digestion, and extremely nourishing, a less quantity of fresh meat is required; but an increase in the consumption of salt meats, such as bacon and hams, though not of salt beef, together with a free use of vegetables and wholesome fruits, such as melons, figs, peaches, pears, bananas, plantains,—these constitute, with fresh fish, of which there is an endless variety, and shrimps, crabs, turtle, &c., the distinguishing fare of the summer season. Corn meal cooked in a variety of ways, as cakes, mush, &c., and the best quality of bread, coffee, and tea, are regularly consumed.

In the matter of beverages coffee particularly is in universal use both with rich and poor, and is highly

esteemed for its suitableness to the climate. Moderation in, if not total abstinence from, ardent spirits cannot be too strongly insisted on; the whisky manufactured in the country is generally very much condemned, being a vile composition, and drugged to such an extent as to go under the familiar name of "benzine," and is held in abhorrence by those who set any value on their health and lives; such a reckless course has been pursued in the fabrication of this liquor that most of it is looked on in no better light than direct and absolute poison, the adulteration of it having been carried to so fearful an extent. A drink much in favour called "lager-beer," light and not very intoxicating—a tonic—is much consumed, and not considered injurious in this climate; it comes principally from St. Louis, Cincinnati, and Chicago, and is rapidly taking the place of whisky as a beverage, and for a climate requiring tonics is unquestionably better than the deleterious compound before mentioned.

The French and Creole populations prefer the light Bordeaux wines, claret: not the heavy, strong claret sometimes used, but the less expensive—though equally pure—less strong, but genuine common wines from the Bordelais district of France. This wine is sold at from 4*s*. 6*d*. per gallon to 5*s*. per gallon, of very good quality, and from long experience is much esteemed in a sanitary point of view. It is, in fact, the drink *par excellence*, being sufficiently stimulating for the climate, yet not too much so, containing the reddening properties which convey iron to the blood, together with an astringent quality which prevents the tendency, so common in hot, humid climates, to disorders of the bowels, combined with a slight acidity found in these wines, which acts most favourably on the liver, which is a matter of some consequence in a hot climate. Strong heady liquors are decidedly bad and should be avoided; for, owing to the heat of the climate in summer-time, they will have a more injurious effect on those who indulge in them than they would elsewhere, or in a more northern region. The free indulgence in the use of ardent spirits cannot be too strongly condemned; temperance and moderation absolutely must be practised by all those who contemplate a prolonged residence in this southern portion of America or of the United States. As regards labour, exertion, and exposure, and the effects

resulting from it, the stranger can, during the cool season, say, for eight or nine months in the year, exert himself out of doors at any hour of the day with impunity; but in summer he cannot stand the powerful influence of the sun between the hours of 12 o'clock at noon and 4 o'clock in the afternoon without suffering, particularly in the agricultural districts; and if his ambition leads him to the attempt of a whole day's work, including those hours, he will surely sustain injury to his health. All in-door work, however, is practicable, and free perspiration, unchecked by sudden cold winds, conduces to the maintenance of health.

The number of hours of labour daily are ten, for five days of the week, and nine on Saturday. In manufactories, foundries, mills, and all places sheltered from the sun, labourers and artizans work equally as well in summer as in winter, and with no greater inconvenience or exhaustion; they may not show so much flesh in their personal appearance as the labourers of colder countries, but the muscular and nerving forces undergo no diminution; out-of-door work, early in the morning and late in the afternoon, can be successfully accomplished; regular habits are essential; and, with industry, perseverance, frugality, and temperance, it is quite possible for any ordinary individual to acquire by economy a capital after ten or fifteen years of work without any adventitious circumstances to bring it about.

Clothing.—The climate being a mild one, light woollen clothing is suitable almost at all seasons; the extreme of cold in winter only produces a thin formation of ice, not more than a quarter of an inch thick, and that but rarely: therefore, very heavy clothing is not needed; it is asserted by many, and they prove their assertions by practice, that the wearing of light woollen clothing of the flannel order of texture is cooler to the body and protects it better from the heats of summer than either cotton or linen; nevertheless, light cotton and linen stuffs are much worn in summer, together with light textured woollens and flannels, through which the air and the perspiration can freely pass; all kinds of clothing proper to the climate and season are readily procurable and at moderate cost; merino under-shirts at all seasons are very generally worn, especially by the labouring class, owing to the sudden and rapid changes in the temperature during the

seasons of autumn, winter, and spring, when the thermometer frequently marks a difference of 30 to 40 degrees in a few hours' space of time; these changes ought to be carefully guarded against, as the very sudden alteration in the temperature is brought about by the movement of the wind from south to north, or *vice versâ*, producing an atmosphere corresponding to the points of the compass whence they blow, either of an icy or of a sultry character, with proportionate risk of taking cold in winter or fever in the autumn; these changes being frequent and the cold weather never of long duration, colds and catarrhs are easily combatted and overcome.

Lodging.—Lodgings can always be procured in good and well-ventilated buildings; the dwellings of artizans and labouring people are generally separate tenements, sometimes in rows with yard, room in the rear, well supplied with water in wooden cisterns, and all conveniences of civilized life. The system of lodging-houses is entirely unknown, from the fact of their being plenty of space to build single dwelling-houses on, and land cheap and abundant, not only in this city, but in all the towns and country, within a range of 800 or 900 miles of it, there can be no overcrowding of people from the fact that the city of New Orleans, with a population of 250,000 inhabitants, extends over an area of 36 square miles, having a front of fully 12 miles on the Mississippi River, with a depth of 3 miles therefrom towards the lake, in the rear of it, and furnishes space enough for innumerable single dwellings, with vacant ground attached for gardening purposes, and of course with ample room for thrice the amount of population with habits and modes of living such as now prevail. A good artizan or mechanic need not be long in the country before becoming possessed of a house and grounds of his own.

Building companies will enter into a contract to provide a person with a house built of wood, containing two, three, or four rooms, on a lot of ground of moderate dimensions, for a sum not exceeding 600 to 700 dollars: the house costing 500 dollars, and the land, 200 dollars—in British money, say, 100*l.* to 175*l.*—the cost of same to be paid in instalments equal to a monthly rent, until full reimbursement has been achieved by the party furnishing the property, and these buildings will be situated so

as to be within range of the centre of work, and easily accessible by horse-car railroad communication. At the cotton-mill below the city, situated on the Mississippi River, separate tenements, with lot of ground attached, will be for the use of the operatives at a nominal rent.

There are no risks to the general health of artizans and labourers in this district arising from miasmatic dirt, dense occupancy, or poisonous atmosphere; the place enjoys remarkable exemption from disease, with the exception of yellow fever, and the management of that complaint is now so well understood, that the danger attending an attack may be materially lessened by watchfulness and prompt attention. Consequent upon the clearing and drainage of the land, the country is much freer from this disease than formerly; it also makes its appearances at greater intervals than formerly; it can likewise be readily overcome by securing prompt treatment, taking instant action when the premonitory symptoms first manifest themselves, allowing no delay for the disease to gain headway and ascendancy. Perhaps there is no occasion in human affairs where instantaneousness of action is of such vital importance as in the management and conduct of yellow fever.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The quality of work performed here by artizans can be characterized as good, but, perhaps, not generally of the first-class, the majority not being operatives of first-rate skill. Artizans of a high order of capability would always secure remunerative employment; the manufacturing interest, too, it must be said, is on the increase, and much desire and ambition is shown by the community to foster and promote it. The recently inaugurated Agricultural and Mechanical State Fair has exhibited fine specimens in artizans' skill in the making of sugar-mills, rice-mills, sugar-refining apparatus, joiner work, house furnishing and finishing work, boot and shoe work, ice-manufacturing machines, and numberless other mechanical contrivances, for excellence in which prizes are given and distinction earned—honourable, useful, and profitable to the successful competitor. On the other hand it cannot be denied, and it is undoubtedly true, that a large class of ordinary work-

men are to be found here who think only of remuneration for their labour, without any idea beyond that important consideration; these men would be indifferent to the reputation they would earn for the work performed. They play their part in the cheap work required, and done on so extensive a scale in this country, where everything is in a state of quick transition, and nothing lasts long to reproach or commend the author or originator; there is nothing permanent or lasting; everybody and everything changes and passes away rapidly, and the acts and results go with the actors, and the nature of the institutions of the country favour the movement.

The influence of experienced good and efficient workmen has undoubtedly been to augment the rate of wages; good work cannot be had at low prices; and the labourer is certainly not only worthy of his hire, but he exacts and receives it, the results being shown by independence soon acquired, emancipation from an inferior position, and assumption of a superior one: namely, that of master and employer in lieu of journeyman and employed, that is to say, if an ordinary amount of ambition stimulates him to attempt the higher grade.

The actual purchase-power of money in this country is difficult to state without being furnished with data from the British statement of accounts of receipts and expenditures among the industrial classes, whereby an accurate comparison could be made with like items and corresponding matters here; and if it is not possible to define it distinctly, it may be permitted an attempt to reach the desired conclusion through generalities and inferences, it might be stated that the economies may be easily and successively practised, and that the results are shown in the rapidity and facility with which the industrial classes improve their condition by saving habits, wherever these are faithfully pursued, continued, and carried out. Cases could be cited of men who could neither read nor write ten or fifteen years ago who now possess a capital of 8,000 dollars, or 1,500*l.*, acquired simply by industry, frugality, and temperance, in one of the ordinary occupations of mankind, as a gardener, for instance, and that without any more than the usual share of intelligence, with no extra gifts in his specialty. This shows, and many other examples could be added

to it among the various walks of life here, what it is possible to achieve in an ordinary way. But economy is not an American virtue; the money easily acquired is freely spent; the temptations to squander it are great, and the expenditures necessary to enable one class of people to vie in appearance with those more favoured by fortune, are unhesitatingly and cheerfully made, and do perhaps interfere with more permanent and substantial investments among people at large. The system of economy is more perfect in Europe than in this country, certainly in the Southern portion of the United States. In the former it is an enforced adaptation of means acquired by labour, to the imperative requirements of life to be sustained, where the struggle for the means of living is an anxious one. In the latter, that is to say, here, perhaps owing to the rapid development of means to support populations, a more careless estimate of the future prevails among the working classes generally, a consequent indifference to providing for it. Steamboat and railroad travelling is cheap in this locality, and offers inducements to emigrants to this place, who do not find it equal their expectations and become dissatisfied, to travel in any direction they may fancy—to Texas, Mississippi, Arkansas, Tennessee, lands of great promise and resources—or to the Western States, at a cost quite inexpensive, namely 5 dollars, or 1*l.* sterling, by steamboat hence to St. Louis, Missouri, a distance of 1,200 miles.

This Consular district is essentially an agricultural one. New Orleans being only the place of temporary deposit of the varied products of the Mississippi valley, and the demand for artizans not so constant as it is in the settled manufacturing centres, it is therefore variable, and workmen sometimes can find no employment; still, at certain seasons there is a great demand for particular descriptions of workmen, during the summer and fall season especially, for all those who are concerned in the various branches of house-building, at which period of the year every kind of edifice is put up. The agricultural occupation is, doubtless, the most profitable; the negro labourer, who constitutes the chief farming element in the country, finds it only necessary to work five days in the week to secure all he wants, the remainder of the time being given up to idleness and amusement. With

his earnings in that limited space, he has enough to spend in worthless gewgaws and trumpery: such as an old, soft iron shot-gun; a galvanized, imitation gold watch; a cheap, broken-down, worn-out, old horse, or the just moveable wreck of a gig or buggy; together with a fearful amount of bad whisky, and to lead generally a purposeless existence. The industrial white class in the cotton or sugar districts, in a healthy locality, can live in great ease and comfort, with an amount of exertion which will in no wise prove injurious to health; and there are thousands of the white denizens of these parts who positively can wear out any negro by competition in work—sun or no sun, in heat or in cold—through the possession of better staying qualities. The impression also prevails that it is quite possible to populate this Southern country with English emigrants,—at least, in the healthy portions of it. When we see in every direction the descendants of settlers of the white race of former years, who make a good stock of population, and undegenerate citizens, men of good physical development who have attained an extraordinary longevity, though having been employed actively and laboriously all their lives.

To sum up the result of various observations made on the industrial classes in this district, with regard to their condition and position, it must be admitted that their state is not an unfavourable or unpromising one. There are several well-sustained savings-banks, which show an increase, gradual and regular, in the financial economy of all classes. Free schools abound for all grades of society, and of several religious denominations, which are universally attended, all instrumental in elevating and improving the masses of the population; and emulation is created to improve the position and standing of every one by this means. None have excuse for want of education, and so contagious is the example of this general desire and effort for improvement, that none hang back or avoid it. The reproach would be too great were the benefits and advantages of instruction neglected, and not availed of.

The proportion which the industrial classes bear to the other, or the commercial class—for there is none which lives in ease and independence—cannot be very accurately determined. In the cities or towns, inde-

pendent of the agricultural labourers, it might be equally divided,—set down as one-half of each. But the agricultural is a very preponderating body of workers; every one has to work for support. The effects of the late civil war are still apparent in this; so much material wealth was destroyed and swept away by it, it is not uncommon to see persons of seventy or eighty years of age still engaged in business, and attending methodically and regularly to it. The capabilities of the country, especially the agricultural portion of it, are so great, that a very flourishing state of affairs, it is hoped, must soon become a reality.

At the present moment particularly, there is a very general inquiry from the rural districts—both cotton and sugar plantations—for waggon-makers, blacksmiths, common engineers, ostlers, or men who can take care of and understand the management of cattle, horses, and the details of a farm; or those who can set on foot a market-garden in the vicinity of some of the inland towns. White labour is much preferred to black people, and would always command a choice of employment. The opportunities in the agricultural districts for the above-mentioned class of labourers and artizans is undoubtedly very great, and the prospect of success in the country is greater than in the city. The labourers are generally on good terms with their employers, and we hear rarely of strikes, or trouble of any kind.

(Signed) EDWIN F. BRIGGS.

MAINE AND NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Consul Murray to Earl Granville.—(*Received December* 8.)

My Lord, *Portland, November* 21, 1870.

In compliance with the instructions contained in the Foreign Office Circular dated the 7th of June last, I have the honour to transmit herewith my Report upon the condition and position of the industrial classes within my Consular District of Maine and New Hampshire.

I have, &c.

(Signed) HENRY JOHN MURRAY.

Inclosure 1.

Report by Consul Murray respecting the Position of the Industrial Classes in the States of Maine and New Hampshire.

With regard to the filling in of the printed form No. 1, on the subject of the purchase-power of money, transmitted by the Foreign Office Circular of the 7th June last, I regret to state that, after much consideration and statistical sudy, I cannot arrive at any satisfactory conclusions that can be condensed into the form. This omission, however, may not prove of so much importance, as I am enabled to transmit, and refer to a most valuable pamphlet recently published by Mr. Edward Young, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics at Washington, on "The Cost of Labour and Subsistence in the United States for the year 1869," &c., and which, in tabulated forms, gives the wages of every class of workmen. The retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, and also the prices of board and rent. These statistics have been most carefully collected through official channels, and, as they include the States of Maine and New Hampshire, they must exceed in thoroughness and value any that I have been able to obtain. I have carefully gone over them, and with regard to my own district can find no alteration worthy of

remark; for, although the price of gold has considerably diminished during the present year, the prices of living have made no perceptible corresponding decrease. A careful perusal of these Tables would enable an intending emigrant to ascertain, according to his capacity as a workman, what wages he can obtain and the price of living in these and other States of this country. Whether he would be enabled to save money must be determined by the fact of his being a single or a married man, the number of his family, and his skilfulness as a workman. Mr. Augustin Haines, the Agent of the Laconia Mills at Biddeford, Maine, where about 1,000 operatives are employed, informed me he believed the greater portion of them saved money, and that several of the overseers had become wealthy. This may be true of mill operatives, but it would not appear to be the case in all branches of labour, for, in a Report on the Statistics of Labour for the State of Massachusetts in 1870, the question of the indebtedness of the working people is sought to be elicited, and the following is the deduction:—

"Yet, as a prevalent impression seemed to exist that the working classes were in all their several employments, in process of acquiring property, and that, as pauperism appeared to be diminishing, therefore the general status of labour was improving, we were desirous of procuring facts bearing upon a subject so vitally interesting. The questions were quite fully answered, and they indicate that a very large percentage of wage-labourers are in debt. The causes generally assigned are insufficient remuneration and the habits that spring out of such insufficiency—habits tending to waste, and not to thrift."

In an interesting Table containing the annual cost of living and earnings of thirty-five different families of all classes of workmen, the following summary is made:—

Total number of families		35
Ditto, persons		154
Average to a family		4 4/10
	$	c.
Ditto, expense of a family	701	20
Ditto, earnings per family	683	59
Ditto, loss per year to each family	17	61

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Every variety of food that is met with in Great Britain is common in these Eastern States, and in great abundance. As a rule, flour is more extensively used than at home, in varieties of pies, hot cakes, and biscuits; so much so that the majority of the inhabitants is said to suffer from some form of dyspepsia, attributable in a measure to the inordinate use of saleratus, a carbonate of potash. Little or no beer is drank by the generality of the people born here, who drink water with their dinner, and finish their meal with tea. With regard to spirituous drinks, although the Maine Liquor Law has been in operation for many years, all kinds of liquor are to be procured in the larger cities, but the liability of seizure has had a very pernicious effect upon the quality generally sold; therefore, any continued indulgence in the ordinary and cheap liquors which abound would result in the most serious sanitary consequences.

Clothing.—When I state that, during the last twelve months, the thermometer has ranged in these States from 16° below zero to 100° above, it will be understood that the lightest to the warmest clothing is in requisition, and that the climate of Maine must necessarily be very trying to people who have been born and resided in one more equable. The climate of Canada is far more healthy than that of Maine, as the winters there, although somewhat colder, are more steady. Here the winters are broken, not unfrequently varying from 40° to 50° in twenty-four hours. The houses are generally kept overheated by hot-air or steam-furnaces, and the violent changes between the two atmospheres is conducive to pulmonary and chest complaints; consequently, the greatest care has to be taken to avoid the ill effects of these great and sudden changes of temperature. In fact, the climate of Maine is not a good one to emigrate to. We have three months of hot weather, five months when the snow remains on the ground, prohibiting all agricultural pursuits, and the remaining four months, with few exceptions, variable and unpleasant.

Lodging.—The houses generally occupied by the working classes are detached wooden tenements, one and a-half and two stories high, from three to six rooms,

rents varying from 50 dollars to 150 dollars a year, but larger houses are frequently shared between several families. The smaller houses are mostly the property of the occupiers—married men, whose first principal object in life is to purchase a house and give it to their wives. Single people, however, live in boarding-houses; men pay from 4 dollars to 5 dollars a week; women from 2½ dollars to 4 dollars in towns, country board being proportionally cheaper. In the manufacturing towns the Corporations frequently build large brick houses, which they let at very moderate rents to persons who are bound to board the hands at a fixed rate, and where, I understand, very stringent regulations are in force for the comfort and well being of the people in their employ. At the Laconia Mills at Biddeford, the women and girls pay the Factory Company's boarding houses 1 dollar 75 cents per week board, and the Company pay the boarding mistresses a premium in addition of 50 cents per week. This regulates the board of women and girls at 2 dollars 25 cents per week, which those who do not board in companies' houses have to pay.

I ought to add that the tenement houses occupied by the Irish, who congregate together, are not kept as cleanly or as healthily as the others, and that the American workman refuses to live with the Irish if he can avoid it.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

The quality of work executed by workmen in these States is represented to be good, and they are generally competent in their several departments. In Portland the workmen employed in the iron-works, glass-works, carriage manufactories, shoemakers, building contractors, carpenters, gas-fitters, plumbers, &c., are all good and competent workmen, and none but first-rate hands will meet with employment. A considerable change has taken place latterly in this respect, and men have to be more thorough in the knowledge of their trades than formerly, when a man took up a trade and left it at will, especially during the late civil war, which demoralized every pursuit.

With regard to their taking a pride in their work, I should say it depended more upon their employers than

upon them. If good work is required and paid for, it is obtained, but the pride, I should imagine, is dependent upon the money, and regulated by it.

The skill and trustworthiness of the workman has a decided influence upon the rate of wages, or rather on the amount he receives for his labour, as the skilful workman will earn more on piece-work than the less skilful, which is constantly seen in all mill-work, with women as well as men.

Summary of Remarks.

A few remarks upon the condition of the industrial classes in my district may be interesting. From the many inquiries I have made, and from personal observation, I should say that they are, on the whole, in a good and thriving condition, equal, if not superior, to any other in the world. Their wages are good, they live well, they dress well, and they lodge well, and, if skilled workmen, can depend on constant employment. If born in this country they have had the blessing of a good common education at the public schools, and their children receive the same, free of expense. All these advantages create an independence of character rarely to be met with in other countries, and places them on a different and more equal footing with their employers, who have been, for the greater part, working men like themselves, or, at least, not better educated. There is, comparatively speaking, very little absolute poverty, and the poorhouses are mostly occupied by the desolate aged, the intemperate, and the vicious. The Irish population appear to be the most improvident, and, although chiefly coming from the agricultural districts in Ireland, persistently occupy the cities and towns, which may be accounted for in a measure by the influence the Roman Catholic priesthood have over them, an influence greatly on the increase here within these few years past, and which threatens considerable social and political trouble in the future.

The employment of women, wherever their services can be useful, is very general, but very few native American women will go into domestic service. In former years it was different. Farmers' daughters preferred spending a few years in city service, where

they were treated as members of the family; but now—possibly from a higher class of education, increased facilities of locomotion, and the continual immigration of Irish and Nova Scotian girls—they prefer going into the various manufactories, where the wages are higher, or serving in shops, or what are supposed to be less menial occupations. The consequence is, that good servants are very scarce, and are so independent that housekeepers have to put up with conduct that would not be tolerated elsewhere; in fact, the servants are the real masters, a reason which accounts for the prevalence of the American custom of living in boarding-houses. It may be interesting to know that the female population of these Eastern States is regarded as far superior in their attainments to the male, owing to the advanced system of education in the public high schools, at which the girls remain and graduate long after the boys go into business or seek other employment. This superior education does not lead to happiness in after life, when they marry at home; yet, on the other hand, it enables them to form alliances which they could not dream of under other circumstances.

With regard to the hours of labour, I understand that ten hours is the usual number, in some of the mills eleven hours. In Government employ the labourers work only eight hours for a full day's pay, a system initiated by the United States' Government for political purposes, but which cannot be expected to last long, as it only creates jealousy and ill-feeling among the workmen, and imposes upon the country a heavy per-centage upon all Government work.

In reply to a query I addressed to Mr. Walter Wells, the well-known statistician of Maine, upon the state of the labour market, he remarks:—"With regard to openings for labour from without, I would say that, as regards facilities for manufacturing by water power, Maine offers facilities unsurpassed, if indeed equalled, in the world. There are at least 1,000,000 horse-power of available force, 300,000 of which are accessible by rail, or by coasters, or steamers. Privileges can be had at insignificant cost, and the market for manufactures is, under the present tariff arrangements, the whole country. The time is not far distant when the general centre of elaborate manufactures for New England and the whole

United States will be found in Maine. It is confidently believed that in ten years skilled artizan labour from abroad will be in urgent demand in this State."

From the recent census taken in this State of Maine, it appears that the entire population amounted to 628,719, an increase of only 440 over the census of 1860. Any future increase of the population may be expected from the manufacturing and not from the agricultural classes. An attempt is now making, with the assistance of the State Government, to establish a small Swedish colony in the County of Arvostook in the north-eastern part of the State, and which is said to be better adapted for agricultural pursuits than any other portion. The result of the speculation is looked upon with considerable interest by the State authorities, who are anxious to get an active and hardy population to bring these vast unoccupied districts into utility and cultivation, and for which purpose the Scandinavian emigrants are peculiarly adapted.

(Signed) HENRY JOHN MURRAY.

Inclosure 2.

Pamphlet entitled "The Cost of Labour and Subsistence in the United States for the Year 1869, *compared with previous Years." By Edward Young, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics. Washington: Government Printing Office,* 1870.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Consul Kortright to Earl Granville.—(*Received January 7, 1871.*)

My Lord, *Philadelphia, December 20, 1870.*

In compliance with the late Earl of Clarendon's Circular of the 7th of June, inclosing me Circulars to Her Majesty's Representatives abroad, with reference to reporting on the industrial classes of the countries in which they reside, I have the honour herewith to transmit to your Lordship a Report on the industrial classes in this Consular District, and to express my regret that it has not been in my power to forward it at an earlier date, as it has required much labour, and the personal examination of a large body of the classes represented, in order to insure the most correct data.

I trust the Report may be deemed worthy of publication, and more especially that it may meet with your Lordship's approval.

I have, &c.

(Signed) E. K. KORTRIGHT.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Kortright on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the State of Pennsylvania.

The tide of immigration from Europe has hitherto flowed uninterruptedly in the direction of the Western States of the Union, which open a new field of almost boundless extent, and offer greater inducements to the enterprising labourer, farmer, and mechanic than the Eastern and Northern States, where the labour market is already in a great measure stocked. The normal tendency of mankind has always been westward, within an isothermal belt of equal temperature, encircling the earth in the North Temperate Zone.

Owing to these and other causes, the emigration to other portions of the Union has been more gradual and sparse, but there are doubtless other States, east, north, and south, which still offer highly advantageous conditions to the labourer, farmer, and mechanic. Not the least

important among these may be classed the State of Pennsylvania, ranking, as it does, second in the Union for population, wealth, and industrial and mineral resources, situated between 39° 42′ and 42° 15′ N. latitude, and 74° 44′ to 80° 34′ W. longitude, forming almost a parallelogram. It embraces an area of 46,000 square miles, watered by numerous large rivers, and enjoying a healthy climate, pure and dry, though variable, the thermometer in the summer reaching at times upwards of 100° Fahrenheit in the shade, and in winter sometimes descending as low as some degrees below zero. The mean temperature throughout the year is 49°. The State is replete with mineral wealth, especially coal, iron, and petroleum, and produces all the cereals and other agricultural crops found in the temperate zone. For farming purposes, under proper conditions, it is especially favourable, but it would not be advisable for persons of advanced age, or burthened with large families, to settle in that capacity. The work is continuous and hard, and better adapted to the young and vigorous. The improved lands are rapidly and constantly increasing in area and in value. The rye, wheat, and grass crops are larger than those of any other State, and it ranks third in the value of live-stock, and in the production of wool and Irish potatoes. The agricultural status of Pennsylvania, according to the last census (1860) is reported as follows:—

Agriculture.—Number of farmers (not including 69,104 farm labourers)		180,613
Improved lands in farms	acres	10,463,296
Unimproved lands in farms	„	6,548,844
Wild or waste lands	„	12,427,860
Number of farms		156,357
Average number of acres to each farm		109

The value of this improved and unimproved land is over 500,000,000*l.* sterling, or about 20*l.* per acre for improved, and from 2*l.* to 5*l.* per acre for unimproved land. Small improved farms, including house, barns, and other out-buildings, with good fencing, &c., range in price from 8*l.* to 130*l.* per acre, according to locality, improvements, soil, &c. The lands in the mountainous districts without fencing and buildings bring 8*s.* to 2*l.* per acre. The farms are composed of from 1 to 50 acres when near cities and towns, and from 50 to 200 acres

elsewhere, the land on each farm being usually all connected, and in most instances easily accessible by railroad to a market. The system of occupation is by small proprietors and tenants under proprietors, the tenants averaging only about one-sixth of the number of proprietors. The tenants under proprietors pay a rent equal to about 6 per cent. interest of the value of the farms, or running from 1*l.* to 200*l.* per acre per annum.

Without going into detail of the respective qualities of the different counties throughout the State for agricultural purposes, which would occupy too much space in a Report of this nature, it may be stated, as the result of accurate investigation, that lands can be purchased or rented on favourable terms for small farms in twelve, at least, of the fifty-one counties of which the State is composed, viz.—Bucks, Berks, Lehigh, Montgomery, Susquehanna, Perry, Adams, Bedford, Warren, Clearfield, Crawford, and Venango. The soil in most of these counties is of good quality, in many instances traversed by the numerous railroads of the State, and affording a convenient market for produce; and many of them are well timbered with oak, hickory, chesnut, maple, pine, and hemlock. In the County of Berks in prosperous years, nine-tenths of the population are engaged in manufactories, machine-shops, &c. The agriculturalists in these and other farming districts of the State are well housed, fed, and clad; and though settlers do not accumulate much wealth, the standard of living is prosperous.

The labour in farms is performed, to a very large extent, by Germans, English, and Irish, though the latter, as a rule, prefer to congregate in towns as draymen, porters, stevedores, and house-servants. There are 50,000 miners in the State, principally English, Irish, and Welsh, the Welsh working in the slate-quarries, the coal and iron being chiefly worked by English and Irish. The Americans rarely work as labourers on farms or in mines. If they cannot succeed as small proprietors, they resort to the cities, and embark in the lucrative but demoralizing trade of politics, and other urbane occupations; and, failing these, they migrate to the Far West, where lands can be purchased from the Government at nominal prices.

There are portions of the State inhabited almost

entirely by Germans and Dutch, who still preserve a remnant of their original language, called "Pennsylvania Dutch." They adhere to the habits of their ancestors, publish their newspapers in their own language, and, on the whole, enjoy a peaceful and prosperous existence, becoming useful and valuable citizens.

With reference to the mode in which land is held, and the laws of the State regulating purchase, right of inheritance, rent, as well as the highly interesting subject of ground-rents—exclusively a Pennsylvania institution, and handed down from the time of William Penn—as they formed the subject of a special Report from this Consular District, dated November 16th, 1869, and published by order of the House of Commons, it may be necessary only to refer to that Report.

Population.—The population of Pennsylvania, according to the census of 1860, was 2,906,215 souls. The census of 1870, not yet completed, will probably show an increase of 25 per cent. over that of 1860, or 3,511,543 inhabitants. Of these, the employed, or labouring classes, are divided, according to the following Schedule, compiled by the able statistician, Lorin Blodget, Esq., of this city.

SCHEDULE of Employed Classes in Pennsylvania in 1870 :—

	Men.	Boys.	Females.	Total.
Agricultural labour	70,000	6,000	2,000	78,000
Manufacturing ditto	85,000	14,000	36,000	135,000
Mining ditto	45,000	5,000	..	50,000
Transportation ditto	40,000	5,000	1,000	46,000
Clerks, salesmen, &c... ..	35,000	8,000	25,000	68,000
Agents, superintendents, teachers, &c.	25,000	1,000	10,000	36,000
Builders, trades	50,000	5,000	..	55,000
Clothing makers, &c... ..	20,000	3,000	25,000	48,000
Servants and housekeepers ..	25,000	5,000	35,000	65,000
Miscellaneous labour	50,000	8,000	3,000	61,000
Totals	445,000	60,000	137,000	642,000

Under the head of "Agricultural Labour" in the above Schedule, it is intended to include all who work at wages on farms, of preparing farm-products for market, including threshing, dairy labour, &c.

Under the head of "Manufacturing," all are included who work at pursuits for wages, by which raw products or materials of any sort are made more valuable to sell again as general merchandize, but not including clothing makers,—as tailors, seamstresses, shoemakers, who work for personal customers.

Under the head of "Mining," are included all miners of coal, or of ores of iron, zinc, copper, or other metals; all quarry-men of lime-stone, building-stone, or marble, and all who sink wells for petroleum, salt, water, sand, &c.

Under the head of "Transportation," are included all who handle merchandize in any way, all who run railroads, all boatmen and sailors, porters, draymen, stevedores, &c.

Clerks and salesmen include all who attend to the sale of merchandize, and all employés of banks and business institutions.

Agents, superintendents, teachers, &c., include the higher grade of employments, where the persons employed direct or control others; also writers, reporters, telegraph operators, &c.

Builders' trades include all engaged in building houses or other structures, and ship-builders, &c., but not labourers in excavation.

Clothing-makers include all who make clothing or boots and shoes for personal customers, all seamstresses, dressmakers, &c.

Servants and housekeepers include all personal and household attendants, waiters at hotels, watchmen, and janitors.

Miscellaneous labour embraces work on roads, railroads, all earth excavation for buildings, drainage, &c., and all labour not otherwise classified.

In this general estimate the number employed at wages is taken as nearly one-sixth of the whole number of inhabitants. It does not represent the whole number actually employed at labour in the several pursuits, since great numbers of employers in agriculture, manufacturing, building, transportation, &c., are personally engaged in labour. This is particularly the case with agriculture, the census of 1860 having given a total of 180,613 persons as being engaged in agriculture, exclusive of 69,104 farm labourers. Undoubtedly, at

least an equal number out of the 180,613 given as engaged in agriculture, should be regarded as actual labourers, making a total of 140,000 so engaged, while but 70,000 were paid wages, the others being at work for themselves as proprietors.

Considered as a guide to values produced, the following would probably be a fair distribution :—

Agricultural production	156,000
Manufacturing production	145,000
Mining	50,000
Building	55,000
Personal manufactures	50,000
Road making, &c.	60,000
Total labour in direct production.. ..	516,000

In this calculation an addition of 10,000 has been made to the number engaged in manufacture at wages, to represent working proprietors; and additions have also been made to the building and personal manufacturing classes. It might be added that these would produce yearly 300*l.* each in agriculture, 500*l.* each in manufacturing and mining, and 400*l.* each in general labour.

Political influences, in conjunction with other causes, have, of late years, tended to keep wages up to an unprecedented rate. There is, however, a downward tendency in 1870, as compared with 1869; whether permanently so or not remains to be seen. A decidedly beneficial influence has been exercised in this direction by the action of the Trades Unions, which, whether self-impelled or following the action of similar societies in Great Britain, have either entirely dissolved their union, or greatly relaxed the stringency of their conditions, as existing in 1867 and 1868.

The strikes, so fatal to industry here and elsewhere, and entailing so much misery on the working classes, have, in a great measure, ceased. The last that dissolved their union were the stone-cutters in 1869, and all other trades are more liberal in the establishment of their prices. Since writing the above the coal-miners in the Lackawanna Coal Region, to the number of 12,000, have struck, in consequence of reduction of wages by their employers. The difference between this and the previous year is not an average more than 7 per cent.,

although special classes—particularly the higher-paid mechanical employments—have been 15 per cent. to 20 per cent less.

Brick-moulders, bricklayers, stone-masons and stone-cutters, are examples of reduction in the building trades, yet the wages of unskilled labourers in those trades have not been reduced.

As compared with 1867, the reduction on all employments would be 15 per cent., while special classes are reduced 25 per cent.

The relation of the wages paid to the cost of living remains, however, nearly the same as compared with 1869, and shows an improvement over 1867; that is to say, the general cheapness of food and supplies is greater than the reduction of wages. Most articles of food are fully 20 per cent. cheaper in 1870 than in 1867, many are 25 per cent. to 30 per cent. cheaper, and dry goods, clothing, and miscellaneous articles, are 25 per cent. to 30 per cent. cheaper.

The general impression of working men in the city of Philadelphia is, that they find this year (1870) easier in all that relates to labour and living than any previous year; and the basis of the calculation may be shown by the statement that unskilled labour generally receives 7*s.* 5*d.* per day, or 2*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.* per week, which is the same as during the last two years, while the cost, of living, including rents, food, clothing, and all other necessary supplies, averages 10 per cent. to 15 per cent. cheaper. It may, perhaps, be fairly stated that one-half the unskilled labourers receive 7*s.* 5*d.* per day, and the other half 6*s.* 7*d.* During the year 1869 not one-fifth were down to 6*s.* 7*d.*, while many were at the rate of 7*s.* 7*d.*, 7*s.* 9*d.*, and even 7*s.* 11*d.*

The following distribution of employments at wages in Philadelphia may aid in estimating the average wages paid:—By the census of 1860 there were 69,388 males, and 29,009 females, employed at wages in manufacturing pursuits, without (including the mechanical trades, and also exclusive of servants, clerks, porters, and mere labourers) adding 25,000 males, and 20,000 females, to represent these classes, the totals would then have been:—

Males, at wages	95,000
Females, ditto	50,000

To which, for 1870, more than 20 per cent. should be added, probably making for all now employed at wages:—

Males	120,000
Females	60,000

These are distributed nearly as follows:—

	Men.	Boys.	Women.	Girls.
Manufacturers proper ..	37,000	10,000	10,000	13,000
Mechanical trades	35,000	5,000	..	..
Clerks, salesmen, attendants in stores	6,000	1,000	8,000	4,000
Servants and waiters	5,000	1,000	15,000	2,500
Drivers, hackmen, &c. ..	5,000	..	..	..
Men labour	9,000	1,000	..	..
Other and higher employments .	4,500	500	7,000	500
Totals	101,500	18,500	40,000	20,000

House servants (females) commonly called "girls," are really women in most cases, the chief employment of girls under twenty years of age, being in factories. The distinction is not so great, however, as in the case of males, since girls over sixteen years of age generally earn full wages. The distinction should only be between those who earn full wages and those who do not. A relatively small number of men or boys are employed as house servants, the greater number classed as waiters, or servants being those connected with hotels, restaurants, &c.

The highest wages are paid in the mechanical and building trades, so far as relates to physical labour, bricklayers, stonemasons, plumbers, painters, plasterers, paperhangers, roofers, stairbuilders, &c. Many of these yet receive 14*s.* 11*d.* per day, or 4*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.* per week. This is more than the average paid in machinist establishments, iron-works, and metal working generally. Carpenters are an exception in Philadelphia, however, as the general use of machinery in making the woodwork of houses, has reduced the grade of skill, and consequently the wages paid, 11*s.* per day, being the standard for house carpenters; but many are employed at less wages.

The following is a list of wages paid per day and per

week in the building trades in Philadelphia, during the year 1870:—

	Per day.				Per Week.					
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Bricklayers, front work ..	16	8			5	0	0			
Ditto, back work	11	0	to 13	3	3	6	7	to 3	17	9
Carpenters, house	11	0			3	6	7			
Ditto, assistant	7	5	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
Coopers, best	11	0			3	6	7			
Ditto, assistant .. .	7	5	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
Cabinetmakers	11	0			3	6	7			
Carvers (average)	11	0			3	6	7			
Gas and steam-fitters ..	7	5	11	0	2	4	5	3	6	7
Joiners	9	2	11	0	2	15	5	3	6	7
Lathers	7	5	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
Marble-cutters	7	5	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
Marble-polishers	7	5	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
Masons, stone	13	3			3	17	9			
Painters, house and best ..	13	3			3	17	9			
Ditto, assistant	9	2			2	15	5			
Plasterers	13	3			3	17	9			
Plumbers	13	3			3	17	9			
Paperhangers, employing ..	15	0			4	8	10			
Ditto, assistant	7	5	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
Roofers, tin or gravel ..	9	2	11	0	2	15	5	3	6	7
Ditto, slate	11	0			3	6	7			
Stair-builders	13	3			3	17	9			
Stone-cutters	13	3			3	17	9			
Upholsterers	7	5	13	3	2	4	5	3	17	9
Varnishers	11	0			3	6	7			

N.B.—The rate of wages has been converted into sterling at the current rate of exchange, viz., 122 per cent., or 5·42 dollars to the £1 sterling.

The following rates of wages paid in miscellaneous employments have been obtained from the direct information of employers, workmen, or of others personally acquainted with the facts.

The wages of labourers in iron work generally have recently been reduced, that is to say, those strictly in the labourers' grade. A few other deductions have been made during the latter part of the year, but not generally, or even systematically, in any class of works. Female labour is not given in the following Schedule.

Wages paid in miscellaneous employments in Philadelphia during the year 1870:—

	Per Day of 10 hours.				Per Week.					
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Bakers, fancy or cake bakers..	11	0 to	13	3	3	6	7	3	17	9
Ditto, bread	7	5	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
Bag carriers with stevedores..	7	5			2	4	5			
Boiler-makers in Navy yards..	2	2			2	15	5			
Bookbinders	11	0			3	6	7			
Bootmakers, cutters, by the piece	11	0			3	6	7	(average)		
Ditto, crimpers and fitters ..	9	2	13	3	3	6	7	(average)		
Boat-builders	11	0			3	7	6			
Car-builders	9	2	11	0	2	15	5	3	6	7
Car-conductors (city passenger cars, work of 17 hours) ..	7	5	11	0	2	4	5	3	6	7
Car-drivers, ditto	7	5	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
Car-drivers and conductors (at night, work 7 hours) ..	5	7			1	13	4			
Carriage-makers	11	0	13	3	3	6	7	3	17	9
Carriage-trimmers	9	2			2	15	5			
Carpenters in ship yards ..	9	2			2	15	5			
Ditto in navy yard	12	0			3	14	2			
Caulkers in navy yard ..	10	0			3	0	5			
Ditto ship yards, boats, and repairs..	9	2			2	15	5			
Cotton-mill hands (average) ..	5	7	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
Clothing, cutters	11	0	15	0	3	6	7	4	8	10
Ditto, fitters	11	0	15	0	3	6	7	4	8	10
Coopers	9	2	11	0	2	4	5	3	6	7
Curriers of leather	9	2	11	0	2	4	5	3	6	7
Drivers, carts and drays ..	5	7			1	13	4			
Drivers, for stevedores, in all weathers	5	7			1	13	4			
Ditto, dry weather only ..	7	5			2	4	5			
Drivers, carriages	5	7	6	6	1	13	4	2	4	5
Engravers	7	5	15	0	2	4	5	4	8	10
Farm labourers (per month with board and lodging) ..		..			4	12	6			
Firemen, city gas works ..	7	4			2	10	0			
Ditto, ordinary machinery ..	6	6			1	17	10			
Grain shovellers, city wharves	7	5			2	4	5			
Grinders and polishers ..	5	7	9	2	1	13	4	2	15	5
Harness-makers	11	0	13	3	3	6	7	3	17	9
Horseshoers	11	0			3	6	7			
Iron puddlers, rolling mills ..	15	0			4	8	10			
Ditto, helpers	7	5			2	4	5			
Iron rollers, rolling mills ..	15	0			4	8	10			
Iron moulders, in foundries ..	11	0	13	3	3	6	7	3	17	9
Ditto, storeworks	11	0 (reduced)	10	0	3	6	7	3	0	5
Ditto, helpers, storeworks ..	9	2			2	15	5			
Iron foundries, labourers ..	6	6 (reduced)	5	7	1	17	10	1	13	4
Iron machine shops, labourers.	5	7			1	13	4			

	Per Day of 10 hours.				Per Week.					
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Joiners, ship, navy yard ..	11	0			3	6	7			
Labourers, at navy yard ..	7	9			2	6	8			
Ditto, general ship yards ..	5	7	7	5	1	13	4	2	4	5
Ditto, gas works	7	9			2	6	8			
Ditto, brickyards	7	5			2	4	5			
Ditto, merchant wharves ..	7	5			2	4	5			
Ditto, building and excavation	7	5			2	4	5			
Ditto, stables	7	5			2	4	5			
Ditto, iron works	5	7	6	6	1	13	4	1	17	10
Ditto, iron foundries ..	5	7			1	13	4			
Ditto, city street cleaning ..	5	7			1	13	4			
Machinists, best, in iron ..	9	2	13	3	2	15	5	3	17	9
Ditto, ordinary	7	5			2	4	5			
Morocco dressers, by piece, including shavers and finishers	18	8	22	1	5	10	9	7	7	5
Morocco tanners	5	7	6	6	1	13	4	1	17	4
Moulders, brick	13	3			3	17	9			
Mill hands, cotton and woollen	7	5	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
	(average)									
Packing, merchandize ..	7	5	9	2	2	4	5	2	15	5
Riggers, at navy yard ..	11	0			3	6	7			
Saddlers	11	0	13	3	3	6	7	3	17	9
Shipsmiths	9	2			2	15	5			
Shoe-cutters	11	0	13	3	3	6	7	3	17	9
Shoe-fitters	11	0	13	3	3	6	7	3	17	9
Shoe-sewers, customer ..	11	0			3	6	7			
Ditto, shop	9	2			2	15	5			
Scavengers	5	7			1	13	4			

Houses, or lodging of employed Classes.—There are nearly 4,000,000*l.* invested in houses for sale and to rent in the city of Philadelphia, which yield an average interest of 12 per cent. per annum. These houses are occupied by the industrial classes, and are peculiar in many respects, the site of the city greatly favouring cheap expansion, and the erection of buildings of moderate size in accessible streets. In the other parts of the State the houses or lodgings of the working people are similar to those in the country districts and interior towns of the United States generally.

In Philadelphia these dwellings are of brick, and are distinct houses in regular "blocks." The greater number are built 14 feet wide and two stories high, on lots averaging 50 feet in depth; the house containing four complete rooms, with usually a bath-room in addi-

tion, projecting back from the second floor, and a covered porch beneath; as both these can be used in case of need, the one for a sleeping room, and the other for an outer room or summer kitchen, the house may easily be converted by its occupants into a six-roomed house. The height of the cellar is eight feet, two feet of which is above the level of the pavement; the ground floor, or first story, as it is called, is nine feet, and the second story seven feet from floor to ceiling. The rooms are 15 feet each in depth, and the entrance hall is three feet wide, the staircase rising at the rear to the second floor.

The cost of houses of this class is 300*l.* to 400*l.* each, for a title in fee; and they can be purchased by making a small cash payment say, one fourth to one eighth of the whole cost, with mortgage or other security, for so much more as shall make up one half the value, the other half being left at a permanent rent of 6 per cent. per annum, called a "ground-rent." This ground-rent may vary in amount, as it represents the cost of the land built upon, but it is generally about half the cost of the whole property. The interest is always the legal rate—6 per cent.

Thus a mechanic with 50*l.* to 100*l.* cash, can always purchase a roomy, well-ventilated, and very comfortable house, arranging for the payment of the balance of the consideration-money in easy instalments, and obtain the title in fee, subject only to the ground-rent above referred to.

The house may be rented at 2*l.* 10*s.* per month for the cheapest, 2*l.* 16*s.* for others, and from 3*l.* to 3*l.* 10*s.* for the very best. Great numbers of this description of two-story dwellings have been erected in Philadelphia within the past fifteen years. All are neatly built, pleasant and attractive, many having dressings and door-steps of white marble. They constitute a striking and interesting feature of the newer districts of the city.

Another class of two-story brick houses is largely built for the residences of the same class, differing only in making six full rooms, three on each floor, and in giving a better finish to the whole, adding heating furnace, gas fixtures, &c. These are valued at from 400*l.* to 700*l.* each, according to location, and may be purchased in the same way, half cash, and half on ground-rent.

They rent at 4*l.* per month on the average. All have bath-rooms and are supplied with gas fixtures. The more costly are 16 feet front, and 40 to 44 feet deep, the lots being 55 to 70 feet deep. All these two-story houses front on regular streets, the length of the square being 400 to 500 feet, the streets 30 to 50 feet wide, and at the rear all open into alleys from 4 to 6 feet in width.

Three-story brick houses are also largely occupied by mechanics and working men in Philadelphia. These dwellings are similar to the best class of two-story houses, with an additional story and larger lots.

They can be purchased in the same manner as the smaller houses, and rent from 4*l.* to 7*l.* per month, according to the amount of interior conveniences. All these houses use the gas from the City Gas Works, and water from the City Water Works.

Very few of these houses contain more than one family, but often young men, or other boarders, add one or two to the family.

The building records of the city for the past fifteen years show that about 20,000 of this class of houses have been erected, of which 18,000 are occupied by mechanics or other people at wages, with an average of six and a half persons to each house, or a total of 117,000 people so housed. An equal number of the industrial classes occupy buildings of the old character, many with two or three families each, and many more in lodgings or separate rooms. Yet in Philadelphia there are no larger tenement houses, and no houses densely crowded, except in a few streets, and these are occupied chiefly by the vicious. The coloured population, however, numbering 30,000, are more densely housed, and occupy the oldest and poorest dwellings. They also let rooms and crowd lodgers into their houses. Irish labourers do so to some extent, also the Germans of the poorer classes. But the facilities offered for removal to single and separate houses, for which no greater rent would be paid than for lodgings, steadily withdraw the increase of population from these older streets, and thus prevent excessive crowding. It may be stated generally, that one half the industrial classes at Philadelphia occupy separate houses, the other half being in houses of an older style, and with more than one family, or with rooms occupied by lodgers. *Of*

those living in separate houses, built within the last fifteen years, about one-half are owners of their houses, the others paying rent. The builders state that two-thirds of the houses of this class erected by them are sold to their occupants, a portion being sold to investors, who purchase them as an investment, and a few being held for rent by the original builders.

Lodgings are let to working people at an average of 1*l.* 10*s.* per month for one room, and of 2*l.* 4*s.* to 2*l.* 18*s.* per month for two rooms. The houses in the older sections of the city so occupied, and in which lodgings are let, are generally cleanly and always comfortable. They present no evidence of extreme or squalled poverty, and in all cases no viciousness, the occupants appearing to have comfortable means of living.

In the State of Pennsylvania, outside of Philadelphia, and particularly in the mining districts, the houses of the working men are inferior to those of the city.

In a few interior cities, such as Reading, Lancaster, Harrisburg, Pittsburg, Erie, &c., there are many comfortable houses of brick, similar to those above described, but generally in the smaller towns they are built of wood, a few being of stone. The prices paid for these houses are about one-half the price of those in Philadelphia. Rents are also about one half, or 1*l.* 17*s.* per month, for a decent two-story house of four or six rooms.

In the summer season the comfort of the lodgings and houses of work-people in the country is equal to, or greater than those in the city; but in winter the reverse is the case, and the inhabitants of the interior often suffer needlessly from badly protected houses.

In proportion to the wages paid the working men of the interior might be more comfortable, but the neglect to labour continuously is greater in the country, and their actual condition less favourable, in consequence of their loss of time. In the coal-mining districts the greatest dependence exists, and there real hardships are often suffered.

The transient labour of railroad building is usually performed by the Irish, who live for the time in the merest "shanties" of boards, for which, however, they pay no rent. The amount of labour of this character now employed is small. The advantage of a garden for

cultivation is usually obtainable in the country and smaller towns, but it is neglected to a great extent, not half the number availing themselves of it. In the city a garden is rarely or never available.

Among the institutions of Philadelphia, highly advantageous to the mechanical classes, may be named the Building Associations, which number 1,500 or more, and which disburse average monthly sums of 200*l.* each. These associations, though long established in Great Britain, have only of late years been introduced in this city, and work admirably.

In concluding the subject of the dwelling-houses for the labouring classes, it may be safely stated that here, in this city of Philadelphia, the industrious labourer can always find dwelling rooms, or houses, ventilated, premises drained, free from miasmatic dirt, overcrowding, and air poisons, and generally within reasonable distance of his work.

Hours of Labour.—The hours of labour in the cotton and woollen manufactures, and indeed generally throughout the State, are ten hours a day. Extra work beyond that period receives extra compensation. An attempt has been made to reduce the number of hours to eight, but it has been attended with no success. An Act of Congress was passed, legalizing eight hours as a day's work, and the President issued a Proclamation rendering it compulsory in the Government dock-yards and other workshops, but it met with no responsive echo among the general public, and the rule is, if a labourer desires to work only eight hours, he must work by the hour.

Subsistence and Purchase Power of Money.

The following Table shows the average weekly cost of living of a respectable mechanic's family, consisting of two parents and three children, in the State of Pennsylvania, compared with similar living in England.

Articles of Consumption.	Cost of Living of two Parents and three Children in Philadelphia, per Week.				Cost of Living of two Parents and three Children in England, per Week.			
	Currency.		Sterling.		Currency.		Sterling.	
	$	c.	£	s. d.	$	c.	£	s. d.
Bread and flour.. ..	0	68	0	2 6½	1	62	0	6 0
Meat of all kinds ..	3	0	0	11 1½	1	62	0	6 0
Lard or dripping ..	0	44	0	1 7½	0	2¼	0	0 1
Butter	0	65	0	2 5½	0	72	0	2 8
Cheese	0	16	0	0 7½	0	27	0	1 0
Sugar and molasses ..	0	70	0	2 7½	0	18	0	0 8
Milk	0	20	0	0 8½	0	15¾	0	0 7
Coffee	0	35	0	1 4½	0	27	0	1 0
Tea	0	25	0	0 10	0	40½	0	1 6
Fish, fresh and salt ..	0	25	0	0 10	0	27	0	1 0
Soap and starch ..	0	17	0	0 7½	0	4½	0	0 4
Salt, pepper, and vinegar..	0	6	0	0 2½	0	4½	0	0 2
Eggs	0	12	0	0 5½	0	4½	0	0 2
Potatoes and other vegetables	0	47	0	1 8½	0	54	0	2 0
Fruits, fresh and dried ..	0	21	0	0 9	0	4½	0	0 2
Fuel	0	75	0	2 9	0	15¾	0	0 7
Oil or other light ..	0	15	0	0 6	0	11¼	0	0 5
Other articles	0	21	0	0 9	0	13½	0	0 6
Rent	3	50	0	13 0	1	35	0	5 0
Taxes..	0	10	0	0 4	..		..	
Clothing	2	0	0	7 5	0	54	0	2 0
Total	14	42	2	13 3	8	62	1	11 10

Purchase Power of Money.

The purchase power of money is 70 per cent. in favour of Great Britain; that is to say, 1*l.* sterling in England is equal to 1*l.* 14*s.* in Philadelphia.

It would seem, provided the above estimate be correct—and it is strictly so as regards the city of Philadelphia—taking as a basis, for example, the living of a carpenter, wife, and three children, that a respectable Philadelphia mechanic, comfortably subsists on 2*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.* per week, whereas a British mechanic of similar grade would not spend more than 1*l.* 11*s.* 10*d.* per week, with equal family, showing a difference in favour of the British mechanic of nearly 70 per cent. What, then, is the difference in wages? The Philadelphia mechanic earns 3*l.* 6*s.* 7*d.* per week; the British mechanic 1*l.* 16*s.* to 2*l.* 2*s.* per week, thus showing a

difference of about 60 per cent. in favour of the wages in Philadelphia. Deducting the cost of living from the wages of each mechanic, it leaves the Philadelphia mechanic better off by 3*s*. per week than the British. If the British labourer could save a similar amount, he would be seventy per cent. better off than the Philadelphian, the purchase power of money being to that extent in favour of Great Britain.

In summing up this question of the relative purchase power of money in the two countries—a most difficult problem to solve with anything like accuracy—it is to be borne in mind that the respectable mechanic in Philadelphia can obtain, as a rule, continuous employment, an advantage he has over his less fortunate British comrade. His normal status is better. He is better housed, better fed, and equally well clothed, at a far greater expense, it is true. Owing to the admirable system of public schools in the State he has every facility for educating his children at the public expense, though it is much to be feared that a large number of this class, who ought to profit by free education, neglect to do so, and the result is, that in the State there are 75,000—in Philadelphia alone, 25,000—children who do not frequent the public schools, and who lead a life of reckless Bohemianism. Nothing but a compulsory system of education will eradicate this evil, and relieve the prisons and Penitentiaries from their fast increasing burthen of criminal inmates.

Without dwelling too much on the marked tendency throughout the Commonwealth—and, indeed, throughout the States generally—to a luxurious style of living pervading all classes, from the railway potentate, or the successful merchant or tradesman, to the humblest mechanic, all ardently pursuing the almighty dollar, no little importance is to be attached to the nature of the climate—more varied perhaps than any in the world—in regulating the diet of the Pennsylvania labourer. He could not, or would not, subsist on the food the British labourer would be content with. No respectable mechanic or labourer, is satisfied without meat once a-day, few are content without it twice a-day, and many even three times a-day enjoy meat, in some form, at their meals.

The British labourer's compulsory abstinence from

meat on several days in the week, is, perhaps, amply compensated by his beer, on which he probably thrives better than the Pennsylvania labourer on his excessive meat diet. If the latter indulge in any beverage stronger than tea or coffee, he flies to that fatal compound of noxious ingredients called "whisky," the fruitful fountain of crime, misery, and poverty, and which tends more than anything to fill the prisons of the Commonwealth.

It has been stated to the author of this Report by manufacturers largely employing the various nationalities, that in many instances, Englishmen in their employ, though enjoying higher wages than in Great Britain, have shown themselves disappointed, whether from having formed exalted ideas of their prospective prosperity—often the case—or that they found that the purchase power of money was greater in Great Britain, does not appear. Certain it is, that in this Consulate applications are daily made by British subjects for maintenance on the ground of not being able to obtain labour, or clamouring for the same cause to be sent home. The skilled labourer or mechanic can always obtain employment here. But can he not equally so, and perhaps often at higher wages, in the United Kingdom? The same class of men who besiege the doors of this Consulate, craving maintenance or repatriation, are the identical class who infest the streets of London, or parade in procession clamouring for labour or for bread—the social drones in the busy hive of men. They could not get a living anywhere.

(Signed) CHARLES E. K. KORTRIGHT.

Philadelphia, December 10, 1870.

SAVANNAH.

Consul Smith to Earl Granville.—(Received November 28.)

My Lord, *Savannah, November 3, 1870.*

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith a Report upon the industrial classes at Savannah, which I have drawn up in compliance with the instructions contained in Mr. Otway's Circular of June 6th last.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WM. TASKER SMITH.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Smith upon the Position of the Industrial Classes at Savannah.

IN submitting to Her Majesty's Government the following Report, I am desirous to mention, in the first place, that I have been obliged to restrict my observations to Savannah and its immediate neighbourhood, because I could not well frame a document embracing particulars relating to my Consular district at large without in person visiting the various labour centres in Georgia,—visits which it has been out of my power to undertake.

A careful examination into the position of the industrial classes at Savannah has enabled me to secure the subjoined information :—

1. With respect to wages, I gather that skilled labour, such as is performed by printers, tin-smiths, joiners, tailors, carpenters, house painters, &c., commands a daily remuneration, according to merit and capacity, of from 2 dollars to 5 dollars, in United States' paper-money, for each working day averaging ten hours.

Unskilled labour, such as is performed by navigators, carters, scavengers, &c., is paid for at the rate of 1½ dollars, in United States' paper-money, for each working day of ten hours; both classes, skilled and unskilled, being well remunerated.

Under the head of purchase-power of money, I have noted in my résumé sundry rates of wages *paid to*

different classes of mechanics and artizans, and to unskilled labourers, and have placed the equivalent in English sterling money against each sum quoted in United States' currency (paper-money), together with the rate of exchange at which I have converted the amounts. At the same time I take the liberty of observing that, on account of the sudden variations in the gold market, it is not possible to be certain that the rate of to-day may not be either far too high or much too low within the time needed for a Report to reach England. I have been guided in my calculations by what I deem a fair average of the course of exchange during some months past, but as the rates for gold and sterling hardly affect artizans, who are paid in the paper currency of the States, I have quoted the exchange simply for the purpose of instituting some kind of rough comparison between the prices paid here and those ruling in England.

Upon a review of the expenditure which an artizan must necessarily incur, and guided both by my own experience and that derived from other sources, as to the costliness of living at Savannah, I am convinced that I am right in placing the purchase-power of money in this city at less than one-half of what it is in England. I estimate it, taking every expense into consideration, to be in the proportion of 45 to 100.

2. Upon the very important points of health and its preservation, I am enabled to submit certain particulars, viz. :—

a. Diet.—The following articles are suitable and safe in this climate at all seasons: beef and mutton, tea, coffee, milk, rice, hominy (made from maize or Indian corn), sugar, bread, vegetables of all kinds, fruit. Water should be the principal beverage, it is plentiful both from river and pump sources. No diseases, so far as I am aware, are propagated or increased by the Savannah water, though the pump water is said to contain portions of the sewage and cesspools of the city.

Alcoholic liquors are not necessary.

b. Clothing.—In summer weather a mechanic requires three suits of linen or cotton clothing; of which two suits (washing) are in use for daily work, and one suit is reserved for best. In winter his needs embrace a couple of suits of woollen material, besides flannels in

the shape of jerseys. For comfort and almost, but not absolutely, as a necessity, he requires a good supply of shirts, socks, and drawers.

c. Exposure.—White artizans, when sheltered, can work within the city all the year round; in summer and autumn, however, the heats render continuous labour very exhausting, and much liability to fever ensues. In no case during these seasons of the year should any one be exposed to work in the direct rays of the sun, the warmth being so extreme, sometimes continuing well over ninety in the shade for weeks together.* Europeans especially should not venture upon any out-door labour during the four months from July 1st to November 1st; and still more essential is it that they should avoid working or sleeping in the country and suburbs of Savannah, which, except during winter, are infested with the germs of malarial diseases of a maligant nature.

d. Accommodation and Lodging.—Rooms can be rented close by the scene of work (Savannah being a small town containing not more than 29,000 inhabitants), and the accommodation would be ventilated freely, on drained premises, and without any excess of people living in one room or one house. There is little danger to be apprehended from such causes as would arise from ill-ventilated, dirty, or over-crowded premises; the chief adversaries to Europeans, and, in fact, to all the inhabitants of Savannah, are miasmatic diseases prevailing during the summer and autumn months.

e. Prevailing Diseases.—I append below a Table showing a general summary of classified diseases among the whites last year (1869) at Savannah, that year having been, I may observe, a remarkably healthy one:—

		Deaths.
Class 1.	Miasmatic diseases	95
„	Enthetic and inoculated ditto ..	3
„	Dietic ditto	4
Class 2.	Diathetic ditto	12
„	Tubercular ditto	86
Class 3.	Nervous ditto	61
„	Circulatory ditto	11
„	Respiratory ditto	37
„	Digestive ditto	23

* This refers, of course, only to the hottest hours of the day, say from noon to 3 P.M.

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		Deaths.
Class 3.	Urinary diseases	4
,,	Generative ditto	—
,,	Locomotory ditto..	—
,,	Integumentary ditto	2
Class 4.	Children	34
,,	Women..	5
,,	Age	6
,,	Nutrition	2
Class 5.	Accident and negligence	27
,,	Homicide	—
,,	Suicide	1
,,	Undefined	10
	Total	423

The above general summary of classified causes of death refers to a white population of about 19,000. The large number under the head of tubercular disease arises from the fact that so many consumptive invalids from the Northern States seek Savannah and its mild winter climate, and die there from the complaint they brought with them.

3. With respect to the quality of work produced, I have been mainly dependent, of course, upon the opinions of experts. Their conclusions are that the work executed is of fair quality (probably like almost all turned out in the States, rough, but suited to the purpose required); that the men employed, are, as a rule, quite competent to discharge the duties they are engaged for; that the majority are quite alive to a feeling of pride in executing work successfully; and that there are very many among the mechanics and artizan employés who can be reliably depended upon to produce good work.

With regard to the question which was put by Lord Clarendon in the despatch of 7th June last, &c.:—

"What influence has the skill and trustworthiness of the workmen in any department of industry exercised upon the rate of wages?"—

I have the honour to observe that all the information I have gleaned tends to show that the qualities enumerated in the above query have in no way affected the scale of remuneration, but that this is wholly dependent upon the ordinary rules governing supply and demand.

As a general remark, I would here mention that each year there appears at Savannah a floating body of

artizans and mechanics, who during the winter migrate from the north to avoid the severity of the season, and proceed southwards in search of employment; this, I am informed, they usually obtain without any great difficulty, as the coldest months are those when most activity reigns here.

In conclusion, I beg leave to submit that my residence on service abroad, for more than a quarter of a century, has deprived me of practical knowledge of the state and needs of my artizan-countrymen at home in England: I am thus unable, by means of my own personal experience, to estimate clearly the difference of their position as compared with the corresponding classes whose sphere of action lies in the neighbourhood of my post in the United States; but to a trustworthy gentleman, who has employed skilled labour both in Great Britain and at Savannah, and who has the results of many years as a guide, I am beholden for the opinion (which I may mention has been supported by other experienced men) that, taking all points into due consideration, notably the costly disbursement necessary at Savannah and the unhealthy character of its climate during nearly one half of the year, a single man, a mechanic earning 6*s.* a day in England, is decidedly better off than his brother artizan receiving at this place the higher wages of 3 dollars 50 cents, or 12*s.* 11*d.* per day.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.							
	Local.				British.			
Labour. (Sundry quotations of rates of Wages paid for.)	$	c.	$	c.	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
Tailors, journeymen, hours from 7 A.M. to 6 P.M.	2	0	to 4	0	7	4½	to 14	9
Piece-work—								
Trousers	3	0			11	0¾		
Waistcoat	2	50			9	2½		
Coat	10	0	12	0	36	10½	44	3
Cabinet-makers, average daily hours 7 A.M. to 6 P.M.	4	0			14	9		
Carpenters, 10 hours a-day ..	3	0	3	75	11	0¾	13	9¾

	Currency.			
	Local.		British.	
	$ c.	$ c.	s. d.	s. d.
Printers, journeymen and compositors, 8 to 9 hours a-day ..	4 0		14 9	
Bookbinders, according to skill ..	2 0	5 0	7 4½	18 5
Tin-smiths, 10 hours per day ..	3 0	5 0	11 0¾	18 5
(Piece-work would insure a little more than 5 dollars per day, but is uncertain in duration.)				
House-painters, 10 hours a-day ..	3 50		12 10¾	
Machinists, per day	3 0	4 0	11 0¾	14 9
Engineers (*stationary* engines) ditto	2 25		8 3½	
Engine-*drivers*, ditto	4 25		15 10	
Stokers, ditto	1 50		5 6½	
Ordinary labourers in workshops, ditto	1 75		6 5½	
Hands in freight departments, ditto	1 75		6 5½	
PROVISIONS.				
Beef—				
Georgia (very poor) .. per lb.		0 15	0 7	
Northern (good) .. „		0 35	1 3	
Mutton (indifferent) .. „		0 15	0 7	
Coffee .. .. „	from	0 25	0 11	
Tea .. .. .. „	„	1 25	4 7	
Butter (salt) .. .. „	„	0 50	1 10	
Sugar .. .. „	„	0 10	0 4	
Rice .. .. .. „	„	0 10	0 4	
(The above quotations are at the lowest rates.)				
Hominy .. .. ½ peck		0 25	0 11	
Potatoes .. .. bushel	from	2 0	7 4½	
Bread .. .. ¾ lb loaf		0 10	0 4	

Purchase Power.

In proportion of about 47 in Savannah to 100 in England.

The rate of exchange is here taken to be 5 dollars 41 cents to the £ sterling.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Three meals a day should be consumed by an adult. For breakfast, tea or coffee, hominy and molasses, or butter, and bread; for dinner, vegetables and meat, either salt or fresh, and bread, hominy, or rice; for supper, the same materials as at breakfast.

Clothing.—For summer wear an adult mechanic requires three suits of light clothing (linen or cotton); these vary from (cheap) 8 dollars (88*s.* 6*d.*), to (good) 10 dollars (110*s.* 7½*d.*), for the three suits.

For winter wear, two woollen suits are necessary, in price ranging from ordinary, about 25 dollars (184*s.* 4½*d.*), to good, 40 dollars (295*s.* 8*d.*), for the two suits. The very cheapest (but bad), suit, costs 15 dollars (55*s.* 3*d.*) Besides the above clothing, a supply of shirts, drawers, jerseys, socks, cap, and boots should be provided.

Lodging.—Decent accommodation, with board, costs from 8 dollars (29*s.* 6*d.*) upwards, per week; lodgings, without subsistence, vary from 3 dollars to 3 dollars 50 cents. (11*s.* 0¾*d.* to 12*s.* 10¾*d.*)

Medical fees.—Average 2 dollars (7*s.* 4½*d.*) per visit. All drugs and apothecaries' articles are very dear.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Such labour as is performed at Savannah by mechanics and artizans is deemed by customers to be satisfactory enough in quality; both employer and employed seem mutually contented; the one with the work turned out; the other, with the remuneration awarded. There is no local demand for the higher branches of art workmanship, such as ornamental cabinet work, whitesmiths' work, &c. The few wants of the population in these respects are supplied from the Northern States; and consequently no higher-class art work is performed at Savannah. What is executed there is of a plain nature, suitable to the market at hand.

(Signed) WM. TASKER SMITH.

Savannah, November 1, 1870.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Consul Walker to Earl Granville.—(*Received September .*)

My Lord, *Charleston, August* 12, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a Report I have prepared, by way of reply to the Circular issued from your Lordship's office on the 7th June last, in reference to the condition of the industrial classes.

I regret to add that I have been obliged to confine my Report to the position of the industrial classes at the place of my residence.

I have, &c.

(Signed) H. PINCKNEY WALKER.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Walker on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in South Carolina.

I.—*The Purchase Power of Money.*

HER Majesty's Consul has prepared a statement, which is appended, to show the condition of the artizan in contrast with the common labourer. There are some employments at which higher wages may be earned by the former: for instance, printers may receive as much as 80 dollars per month, but it is not found that carpenters, bricklayers, machinists, or blacksmiths are in receipt of more than from 50 dollars to 60 dollars per month, and these rates are subject to reduction by the occasional influx of negroes, who, being able to get through life in a less expensive manner than the white man, accepts employment at from 25 dollars to 40 dollars per month. The wages of printers, however, are seldom affected by such competition.

Her Majesty's Consul has concluded that 60 dollars per month are the wages that an able bodied, acclimated, and skilful workman generally obtains at Charleston, where the population probably numbers 50,000 souls, of whom about 1,000 are skilled labourers; and he has

devoted much time to the examination of their habits of life.

Her Majesty's Consul has examined the ration lists acted upon by ship-masters, as well as those prescribed for the employers of the United States' Government, and he has procured from the parties themselves lists of the provisions considered necessary for the support of the families of the classes under consideration, and the conclusion at which he has arrived is that the cost of sufficient subsistence purchased at wholesale and given out as rations may not exceed 15 dollars per month, or 50 cents (equal to 1*s.* 8*d.*) per day. But that if the workman buys his own subsistence in small quantities at retail rates, it costs him about 20 dollars per month, or 66 cents (equal to 2*s.* 2*d.*) per day, exclusive of fuel for cooking.

But Her Majesty's Consul takes leave to report that unmarried workmen are in the habit of procuring board and lodging at 1 dollar per day (equal to 3*s.* 4*d.*) by which practice their subsistence is cooked for them and ready for their consumption at stated hours, a system so advantageous to the workman that he does not hesitate to pay in addition 4 dollars per month for the accommodation afforded him, and for the services the keeper of the boarding-house renders. It is therefore on the basis of 24 dollars per month for the subsistence cooked and served, that the appended Table is made out.

Her Majesty's Consul, in the course of his inquiries, has been assured that a single man earning 60 dollars per month, if remarkably steady and thrifty, may save as much as 20 dollars per month; that if he marries, he and his wife may manage to live upon the amount earned, but that if there are children to be supported, the family cannot possibly be subsisted, clothed, and lodged in proper comfort without addititional income.

The purchase power of labour, rather than of money, is shown, by the appended Table, to be simply a livelihood for the acclimated unskilled workman or common labourer, and to be insufficient to command medical aid or hospital attendance when the labourer is overtaken by illness or other incapacity for work.

But in the case of the acclimated skilled labourer or artizan, if unmarried, he purchases by his labour as much as 2*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* per month, in excess of his necessary

expenses; if married, this excess must be absorbed by his necessarily increased expenses; and if he has children it is insufficient.

Stress, it will be observed, is laid upon the necessity for acclimation. Artizans from Great Britain newly arrived meet with the greatest difficulty in procuring employment, and in their distress they are often obliged to work for wages no greater than are paid to a common labourer; and they are, moreover, if unable to proceed to the Northern States in the summer season, exposed to dangers of climate, which, it is submitted, should for ever deter emigration from Great Britain and Ireland in this direction.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

1. *Diet.*—The food consumed at Charleston is well suited to the wants of the population, considering the character of their climate; and although not at first relished by immigrants, they very soon adapt themselves to practices they cannot resist. The principal articles of food are rice, hominy (the flinty particles of the Indian corn when boiled), wheaten bread, and fresh and salted beef and pork. In the summer season a bountiful supply of fresh garden vegetables can be had, and, in the winter, potatoes imported from the Northern States.

2. *Clothing.*—The extremes of heat and cold experienced at this port render necessary clothing of every description. The thermometer of Fahrenheit falls sometimes in winter as low as 10 degrees, and rises in summer as high as 98 degrees in the shade. The range of the thermometer on the office-table of Her Majesty's Consul from the 24th June to the 1st August of this season has ranged as follows, viz.:—

At 10 A.M.	..	..	..	89	degrees
At 12 noon	..	..	..	91	,,
At 2 P.M.	..	..	..	92	,,

On the 28th July the mercury reached 97 degrees, and on several days it stood at 96 degrees. During such heat clothing is a great incumbrance, and woollen clothing is intolerable. Appended is the list of clothing and its cost, from which the amount of "6 dollars per month" allowed for the purpose in Appendix No. 1 is taken.

3. *Lodging.*—If the workman's quarters are in the lower part of the city he becomes liable in the summer

season to yellow or strangers' fever; and, if in the upper part, to malarial or "neck" fever. If he takes the first and survives, it is unlikely that he will ever have it again; he may then be regarded as acclimated: but whether acclimated or not, he will be attacked by the other whenever he exposes himself to malarial influences. It behoves the workman, therefore, and more especially so if he be a stranger to the climate, to take the greatest pains to select a sleeping-room in a house standing upon original soil rather than upon filled-in mud-flat; and his apartment should be as high above the surface of the ground as possible, for the yellow fever generally takes for its victims those who sleep on the ground-floors before it attacks those who are above.

Her Majesty's Consul begs, however, to add that yellow fever does not prevail at Charleston as of course, nor every year; but if, from the circumstance that it has been staved off for the last few years, the inhabitants shall fancy themselves secure against its recurrence, and relax their efforts to exclude it by the maintenance of a rigid quarantine, and a careful non-disturbance of soil within their own limits during the summer months, this unwelcome visitor may re-appear and play havoc with the unacclimated who have been so bold as to make Charleston their home.

Her Majesty's Consul knows of no quarters within reach of the limited means of an unacclimated artizan that he could safely occupy during the autumnal months, if the city should again be visited by epidemic fever.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Favourable answers may be given to the several queries on this subject. The artizans at this place are skilful, competent, and honest; and their employers claim that the work they turn out of their workshops is excellent, and greatly superior to imported work of the like nature. In short, the workmen are, upon the whole, content with their employers, and the employers are satisfied with their workmen.

The hours of labour per diem are ten: from 7 A.M. till 12 A.M. and from 1 P.M. till 6 P.M.

(Signed) H. PINCKNEY WALKER.

Charleston, South Carolina, August 10, 1870.

APPENDIX No. I.

STATEMENT of the Earnings and Necessary Expenditure of Thrifty Labourers, Skilled and Unskilled, at Charleston; Amounts being stated in Local Currency and in English Money, at 6 Dollars to the £1.

Labourers.	Average Wages Paid.				Monthly necessary Expenditure, without Beer or the like.				Estimated Loss of Time and of Money per Month from Causes other than Sickness.		Total Monthly Expenditure and Estimated Loss.		Balance to meet unenumerated Expenses, Sickness, &c.	
	Per Day.		Per Month (26 Days).											
	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.	Board.	Lodging.	Clothing.	Washing.	Of Time.	Of Money.	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.
	$ c.	s. d.	$	£ s.	$	$	$	$		$ c.	$ c.	£ s. d.	$ c.	£ s. d.
Skilled ..	2 30	7 8	60	10 0	24	8	6	1	2 days	4 60	43 60	7 5 4	16 40	2 13 4
Unskilled ..	1 50	5 0	39	6 10	24	6	6	..	2 days	3 0	39 0	6 10 0	Nil	Nil

(Signed) H. P. WALKER, *Consul.*

Charleston, S.C., August 10, 1870.

Appendix No. 2.

List of Clothing considered necessary for Artizans and Labourers at Charleston in South Carolina.

In Winter.

	Dols.	c.
2 flannel shirts, at 1 dollar 50 cents each ..	3	0
2 pairs flannel drawers „	3	0
1 pair satinet pants	3	0
1 pair boots	4	0
2 flannel over shirts, at 1 dollar 50 cents each ..	3	0
1 waistcoat, heavy cloth	2	50
1 coat „	7	0
1 hat „	1	50
2 pairs woollen socks at 50 cents each.. ..	1	0
1 necktie..	0	75
2 pairs shoes at 1 dollar 50 cents each.. ..	3	0
	31	75

In Summer.

Several changes of less costly clothing, but costing in all as much	31	75

For Sundays and Holidays.

20 dollars will supply sufficient for two years, one-half per annum	10	0
	73	50

In Sterling, £12 5*s*.

URUGUAY.

MONTE VIDEO.

Consul Munro to Earl Granville.—(Received November 28.)

My Lord, *Monte Video, October 26, 1870.*

As at the conclusion of article 2 in inclosure in Mr. Otway's Circular despatch of 7th June last relating to the condition, &c., of the industrial classes in foreign countries, reply is required so as to be received as near as possible to the 1st of December, I have, accordingly, the honour to transmit, for the information of your Lordship, a statement with reference to this country.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. ST. JOHN MUNRO.

Inclosure.

Report by Consul Munro on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in Monte Video.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

If by the purchase-power of money be meant the relative value of money to the purchaser as between this country and England, I can unhesitatingly state that it is at least as two to one in most cases, and that a still greater disparity exists in some.

In all articles of purchase, or in the expenditure of small sums of money for goods, the dollar—say of 4*s.*—does not represent a higher value than does the florin in England; and where 4*d.* would be demanded for a trifling repair, or a cotton handkerchief in England, the 2-real piece, or 10*d.*, would certainly be required here; and in the same way, where a labouring man would give perhaps 10*s.* for a ready-made coat in England, he would consider the same article equally reasonable at Monte Video at 5 dollars, or 20*s.*

In point of house-rent the difference is considerably more, as for an unfurnished house that in England would cost 20*l.* a-year rent, the same accommodation in Monte Video would be considered moderate at 50*l.* or even more; and as the scale of rent descends the difference becomes even greater.

In meat, which is of a much inferior quality, alone will the power of money approach the same result as in England. In all other articles of consumption, as well as in matters of household furniture, workmen's tools, and, in short, every other necessary, the prices at Monte Video range at from 100 to 300 per cent. higher than for the same in Great Britain.

II.—*Health.*

The dispositions of a Sanitary Committee under the Board of Public Administration ("Junta Economica"), approved by the Supreme Government by Decree of 27th January, 1865, form a code of twenty-one articles, which embrace, apparently, every requirement; and the Police authorities are bound to assist, in every possible manner, the carrying out the rules and regulations of the Sanitary Committee, and has the power of enforcing them by fines.

The drainage of the city, although defective in the work, is almost universal by means of main sewers with channels from the houses; however, the health of the capital can hardly be said to have improved, or the mortality lessened, since the establishment of these works, probably from the great increase in the population, and bad ventilation and want of cleanliness in dwellings.

Diet.—With regard to diet, the mode of living followed by the Italian, Spanish, and French working-classes is so different from what the same class of Englishmen has been accustomed to, that at first it is very distasteful to the latter; but he becomes sooner accustomed to the food than he does to inferior and adulterated Spanish wine with water, the usual beverage of the working-classes here at every meal.

Clothing.—In winter, in this remarkably variable climate, the thermometer (Fahrenheit) varies from 40° to 60°, and almost that amount of difference frequently occurring in twenty-four hours; therefore tolerably warm

clothing, with flannel next to the skin, on account of the great suddenness of change occurring in the temperature, is desirable.

In summer the temperature varies from 70° to 90° to 95°. Regularity of life I consider more essential to preservation of health than in Tropical climates, as I have observed from my own experience of both that the man who constantly exceeds suffers a more rapidly marked deterioration of the constitution here than in the West Indies; however, exposure to the sun in this country is not attended with the same danger as in the Tropics.

Lodgings are always over-crowded, and without any regard to healthy ventilation or cleanliness. If the working-man's occupation be in town, he can obtain lodging at a not inconvenient distance.

The risks attendant upon badly arranged dwellings, and subject to bad miasmatic influence, are much greater than in England; and should a labouring man's family become ill, the medical charges for attendance are ruinously expensive.

III.—*Work and its Quality.*

The labour-market of this country is almost entirely supplied by French and Spanish Basques, Canary Islanders, and Italians. Each of these people, as a rule, are sober and frugal, and are satisfied with an exceedingly low, cheap kind of diet, as well as with living in crowded localities, without consideration for ventilation or drainage. These handicraftsmen are not noted for being neat or careful in the quality of their work, nor in pride or sense of honour in the execution thereof.

They have a great facility in acquiring the language of the country, and are always preferred by contractors and over-lookers to Englishmen.

British artizans seldom come to this Republic unless under contract, when, if they have their document of agreement certified by the Uruguayan Consul before leaving Great Britain, and are employed by honourable persons, they may do well; but from some defect in the agreement or other fact not binding the employer according to the law, or rather nominal law, in the Republic, contracts are very frequently broken most iniquitously,

and the poor Englishman, not having the means of pursuing a tedious and expensive lawsuit, with no assurance of justice being done to his case, finds that he has been swindled.

Many such cases have come under my knowledge, where respectable men have brought out their families under contracts which, not having been carried out, the victims of bad faith have found themselves in a very expensive country reduced to destitution and support from the charity of their countrymen.

Among Englishmen shepherds are perhaps the class of men most likely to find employment in the country, though, owing to the almost total destruction of the pastoral interest by the depression in prices for produce, sheep and cattle farmers are at present almost forced to dispense with expensive servants, limiting themselves to the cheapest labour procurable.

Boiler-makers, and iron-workers generally, can usually get employment at high rates of wages as compared with those of England, but no particularly advantageous prospect offers for carpenters, tin-smiths, or other mechanics, such trades being generally monopolized by other foreigners.

Domestic servants can always get employment at good wages, if reasonable persons. The reason that Basques and Spaniards of both sexes obtain a preference as servants is, that they are much more easily satisfied than are the English, the latter being almost invariably discontented, forgetful of the higher wages that they may be in the receipt of than those prevailing in their own country.

I subjoin a scale of wages approximate to the rates paid at Monte Video at present:—

	Currency.		Sterling.		
Monthly, with Board and Lodging:—	Dols.	c.	£	s.	d.
Farm-servants or ploughmen	16	0	3	5	0
Gardeners	25	0	5	6	0
House-servants, men or women (average) ..	16	0	3	5	0
Cooks	20	0	4	4	0
Daily, without Board:—					
Ordinary day labourer	1	0	0	4	2
Bricklayers	2	0	0	8	4
Carpenters	2	0	0	8	4
Blacksmiths	2	0	0	8	4
Tailors	1	50	0	6	0
Shoemakers	1	50	0	6	0
Shepherds, monthly, with rations ..	14	0	2	16	0
Needlewomen, daily, with their food ..	0	60	0	2	6
Milliners, ditto	1	0	0	4	2

There is always a great difference in the value of the dollar should the payment be in paper, which is extremely fluctuating in value; but the above is about the usual value received.

I append the copy of form referred to, as required to be filled up.

I.—*Purchase Power of Money.*

	Currency.		
	Local.	British.	
	$ c.	s. d.	
Labour	1 20	2 6	Or, as two to one.
Provisions, excepting the one article, beef	1 20	1 6	Or, as three to one.

II.—*Matters of Health.*

Diet.—Meat and vegetables as food, common Spanish wine as beverage, the customary aliment of the working-class; groceries in general extravagantly dear; farinaceous food and vegetables likewise costly. Spirituous liquors, such as sold to the labouring man, extremely hurtful.

Clothing.—The variations in temperature between summer and winter not being excessive but little difference in clothing is absolutely necessary. Articles of

clothing more than double the price of the same in Great Britain.

Lodgings are expensive, and generally in crowded and unhealthy localities, but not in inconvenient distances. Rent about three times that of the same accommodation in England.

III.—*Quality of Work.*

Superior workmanship is not highly valued, the spirit of emulation not existing among workmen; consideration being had for cheapness rather than for first-rate work.

(Signed) J. ST. JOHN MUNRO.

Monte Video, October 26, 1870.

VENEZUELA.

Mr. Middleton to Earl Granville.—(*Received October* 31.)

My Lord, *Carácas, October* 1, 1870.

In a country like Venezuela, the whole of which, with the exception of the two States of Guayana and Mérida, has been a prey to civil warfare for so many years past, it is impossible to obtain any data upon which to furnish categorical answers to the queries contained in the Earl of Clarendon's Circular despatch of the 7th of June last, respecting the condition of the industrial classes of foreign countries.

Any statistical information respecting the subject in question which might be possessed by any of the constantly succeeding political parties in this country would only be made use of for the purpose of sustaining the political banner of the moment, and then discarded; whilst the industrial classes themselves, having perpetually to leave their homes and villages in order to fight in the ranks of one or another of the military chiefs, are utterly unable to adopt any settled system of occupation for more than a brief interval, the extraordinary fertility of the soil alone enabling them to subsist, so much of their lives being passed either with the musket on the shoulder or in concealment, and there being no possibility of carrying on any species of regular occupation or labour whatever except (if I may be allowed to make use of a familiar expression) "by fits and starts."

As I said before, the state of Guayana and Mérida afford exceptions to the general rule—the one enjoying perfect peace, and the other, consisting of highlands, inhabited by a scanty race of mountaineers, whose territory is too inaccessible and poorly cultivated to encourage invasion or suggest rapine.

The climate of Guayana, as has been lately proved by the melancholy fate which awaited the British immigrants who arrived there some months since, is of too exhausting and enervating a description to admit of European colonization being introduced there except at a great risk.

In consequence of what is above stated, the following observations are all I am able to offer, although I am well aware that they are little calculated to impart the substantial information sought for in the Earl of Clarendon's despatch above referred to.

1. In regard to the purchase power of money in Venezuela, as compared with England.

The English labourer would have to pay a higher rent for a house in Venezuela than he would have to pay at home, as well as to pay more for food and for clothing; but, on the other hand, his wants would be much fewer than at home, for the climate is so mild and of so equal a temperature that he would have no preparations to make for winter in the way of additional fuel or clothing, and the only clothing adapted to the climate is of a much lighter texture, and of a far cheaper material than that required at home; and thus the difference in the purchase power of money in Venezuela, as compared with England, would, I should infer, be in favour of the English labourer in this country, whilst the reverse would be the case with respect to the English mechanic, for, as the scale of wages and condition ascends, the difference would probably be in favour of the Venezuelan of the same class, as his wants would not increase in proportion with his position as they would in the case of the Englishman.

2. In regard to matters connected with the preservation of health.

A foreigner may safely in this country partake of the same diet as the native, as it is generally of a wholesome character, consisting principally of beef and poultry, wheat and maize bread, and a common substitute for it denominated "casabe," made of the "yuca" root, rice, beans, potatoes, as well as bananas and other tropical fruits.

With regard to beverages, spirituous liquors are alone hurtful.

As regards change of clothing, the nature of the climate precludes the necessity of any being made, and the lightest apparel is universally worn.

Such mechanics whose occupation obliges them to reside in towns, or, if the nature of their work enables them to perform it under shelter if they reside in the country districts, can bear the same amount, or nearly

so, of exertion or exhaustion in Venezuela as in northern countries; but with regard to agriculturists it is to be remarked that the heat of the sun during the middle of the day is too intense for the European constitution to bear without speedy deterioration, and a suspension of labour for at least four hours is indispensable for the preservation of health.

Health may be easily preserved in Venezuela, in the absence of chronic disease, by the observance of cleanliness and of temperance, just as it may be in other countries,

Dwelling-houses can commonly be procured, both in towns and the agriculturist districts, well ventilated and drained, and free from miasmatic dirt, overcrowding, and air poisoning, and can almost always be found, population being so scanty, at a short distance from the places where work has to be performed.

3. In regard to the quality of work executed in the several departments of labour.

The quality of the work executed by Venezuelan workmen is generally good, but in regard to competency they do not attain the proficiency of European workmen, nor is it possible for them to do so, never being able to pursue their avocations consecutively for more than a very short period, owing to being perpetually forced away from them to fight for one party or another. They are, as a class, very quick and intelligent, and, as far as I am able to judge, take a pride in their work and put their character into it, although I do not apprehend that such sentiments are of a sufficiently consistent character (as they most likely would be were they not liable to undergo the depression and degrading influence of tyranny at every moment of their lives) to induce them to make a stand against doing bad work, as they would against receiving bad wages.

Without confining myself to particularizing any special class of artizans of this country, I should say that the work executed by them can be generally depended upon as good, and that this may be said to arise very much from the sense of honour they have in executing it, and from a desire to obtain approbation. I may add, however, that in a country where the industrial classes are only allowed to dedicate so very small a portion of their lives to any civilizing or instructive pursuit, it would

be unjust to express any opinion respecting their capability, of which anything like an efficient development is impossible.

I am unable to obtain any data which would enable me to state what influence the skill and trustworthiness of the workmen in any department of industry in Venezuela has exercised upon the rate of wages.

In regard to wages and hours of labour in manufactories I am unable to make any statement, as there are no manufactories in this country.

I have, &c.

(Signed) R. T. C. MIDDLETON.

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on 01 February, 2020